



The Teachers' Perspective: What They Want and Get From Supervisory Practices in a Saudi EFL Context

Submitted by

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate teachers' perspectives on how they want to be supervised with a view to critiquing existing practices in light of teacher experience, viewpoint and professional aspirations. Documents used in the supervisory cycle in the setting of the study were analyzed to develop a broader understanding regarding the issues that comprise the supervisory activities and the supervisory criteria as documented by the educational organization that was the setting of this study. In addition, a total of eleven preparatory year EFL teachers in a university in Saudi Arabia were interviewed. The study used qualitative methods, with the data subjected to rigorous analysis that employed an analytical approach informed by the principles of grounded theory.

The ideas gathered from the qualitative analysis of the interview data - complemented by the insights developed from document analysis - led to the emergence of two themes under which teachers' expectations and ideas were grouped: 1) the professional aspect and 2) the social aspect. Under the professional aspect, teachers discussed their ideas regarding activities and concepts directly related to teaching practice and professional activities of teachers. The second theme, the social aspect, covers concepts which are related to the way the organization deals with teachers.

Analysis of teachers' interview data showed that there was some level of commonality between the ideas and expectations of teachers regarding some of the general points related to how they want to be supervised. However, there was considerable disparity in their priorities and their expectations regarding the overall approach of the supervisory system, to the extent that at times the expectations and priorities of some teachers were incompatible with and mutually exclusive of the expectations of the other teachers.

This led to the conclusion that a multi-streamed supervisory system would provide for the needs of teachers with different expectations, priorities and needs. Such a system would have different streams with different activities for beginning and veteran teachers, with one or two more streams in between for teachers who do not fit in either stream. A

multi-streamed system could allow the teachers the opportunity to articulate their needs and expectations and it does not impose a 'one-size-fits-all' system on all the teachers. Furthermore, it was recommended that supervisors should draw on the literature on professional life cycles and consider variables related to the workplace (regulations, management style, social expectations etc.) and to teachers' personal lives (family, cumulative life experiences, individual disposition etc.) so that they can make informed decisions when assigning teachers to different streams within a multi-streamed supervisory system.

Dedicated to my parents...

My mother and father, whose love, guidance and encouragement made it possible for me to take the giant step of embarking on my doctoral journey.

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Abbreviations and Terms

Abbreviations

CELTA:	Certificate in English language teaching to adults
DELTA:	Diploma in English language teaching to adults
ELT:	English language teaching
KSA:	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
PDU:	Professional Development Unit
TESOL:	Teaching of English to speakers of other languages

Terms *(as used in the context of the current study)*

Academic coordinator: An academic coordinator's duties are of an administrative nature. His/her duties include writing weekly quality assurance reports; conducting informal coaching sessions with teachers; conducting team meetings for explaining/communicating university policies and initiatives; monitoring faculty attendance; monitoring curriculum effectiveness through faculty and student interaction.

Instructional leader/supervisor: An instructional leader/supervisor's duties are related to training teachers for instructional improvement and overseeing classroom practice. Their duties include conducting formal and informal classroom observations; delivering workshops; leading discussion groups; training and orientation of new teacher trainers; improving and adapting observation instruments such as post-observation report forms and evaluation rubrics; arranging seminars.

Mentoring System: An informal support system for teachers in which they can contact a mentor and request them to visit their classes and discuss specific issues regarding teaching practice. A teacher's interaction with a mentor is not evaluated in any way.

Supervisory Cycle: The series of activities that a teacher is expected to go through/engage in during the course of a year, such as formal/informal observations, workshops, discussion groups.

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background

A few years ago, I was offered a chance to work as a classroom observer in the university where I was working as an EFL instructor. It was a dilemma for me. I was pleased that I was chosen for this sensitive work which I always considered my choice for the long term. The work is sensitive because the supervision team is responsible not only for professional development, but the observations and recommendations of its members have ramifications for the teachers concerning contract renewal. On the other hand, having worked as a supervisor in a school in the past for some years I was aware that dealing with teachers as a supervisor/trainer is not a task to be taken lightly. As a classroom observer in the university, my job was primarily to observe teachers and provide feedback to them in a post-observation conference. Many teachers view classroom visits from supervisors with dread because a supervisor usually has to perform unpleasant duties such as providing negative feedback (Bailey, 2006). Therefore, when there was teacher resistance to trainer feedback this did not come as a surprise. However, I was surprised at the *level* of resistance and the fact that different teachers approached the supervisory system in different ways: with an air of resignation, with hostility, and occasionally, with a façade of interest for the sake of civility. At times, their views were totally antipodal to my expectations. Initially, I thought it was due to my inexperience and lack of training. I kept telling myself that with experience and training, I would improve as a teacher trainer and be better equipped to work with teachers to analyze their teaching practices and work for improvement. The corollary would be, I told myself, that teachers will become very enthusiastic about supervisory procedures. I observed teachers for over a year and also attended a ‘train the trainer’ course which focused on issues related to teacher training, classroom observations, and feedback sessions. However, I still found myself struggling to understand why teachers always had some kind of problem with the way the supervisory procedures were conducted. Only after delving into supervision literature did I realize that the phenomenon of teachers feeling anxiety at being observed and

being resistant to trainer feedback is not peculiar to the context of this study as other researchers in different contexts have also found evidence of this (Aubusson, Steele, Dinham, & Brady, 2007; Borich, 1994; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Kilbourn, Keating, Murray, & Ross, 2005). I also found, to my surprise, that teacher supervision is often characterized as being unproductive, threatening, unfair, and inconsistent (Danielson, 2001; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Duke & Stiggins, 1990; Scriven, 1990; Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995; Stronge, 1997; Stronge & Tucker, 2003). There is approximately seventy years of research showing ineffectiveness in teacher evaluation practices (Peterson, cited in Robles, 2007). Duke and Stiggins (1986) discuss the ironies of teacher evaluation:

It is one of life's ironies that those experiences which can be most rewarding also have the potential to be most frustrating. Teacher evaluation is like that. Done well, teacher evaluation can lead to improved performance, personal growth, and professional esteem. Done poorly, it can produce anxiety or ennui and drive talented teachers from the profession. (p. 9)

Many researchers claim that there is no proof that teachers or administrators learn from teacher evaluation (Darling-Hammond, 1990). Scriven leaves no ambiguity about what he thinks of teacher evaluation. He states that "teacher evaluation is a disaster. The practices are shoddy, and the principles are unclear" (Scriven, cited in Robles, 2007, pp. 2-3). Furthermore, the teacher evaluation process is commonly viewed by teachers as having very little or no impact on their instructional methods (Peterson, cited in Robles, 2007).

I was not discouraged at all after becoming aware of all the negative issues related to teacher supervision. Far from it. I thought the most natural thing would be to ask the teachers what they want from supervision. After all, once we look past all the diplomatic sugar-coating with words such as "collaboration", "equality" and "collegiality", the teachers are the ones who are expected to bring improvement in their teaching by engaging in supervisory practices. Therefore, it stands to reason that we give the teachers a platform to voice very clearly how they want to be supervised. If they are unhappy about the way supervisory practices are conducted in their context, what could

be done to bring about changes in the practices? What are the conditions they consider to be conducive for a productive and healthy trainer/trainee working relationship?

1.2 Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to enlist the teachers' support in identifying supervisory activities that are more conducive for professional learning for them. Teacher resistance to all forms of supervisory activities witnessed during my time working as an instructional leader in the context of the current study was the prime motivation for conducting the study. My motivation increased when I delved into teacher supervision literature, where I learned that this was typical of many contexts around the world. I wanted to investigate teachers' ideas and beliefs about how their concerns can be addressed instead of just listening to teachers complain and letting it rest at that.

1.3 Research Questions

This study addresses the following research questions, which emerged from the literature review:

Primary Research Question

1: What is the teachers' perspective on how they want to be supervised?

Subsidiary Research Questions

2: What factors should instructional leaders consider when making decisions regarding teachers' professional development and evaluation?

3: How does the performance management role of supervision affect the teacher / supervisor relationship?

1.4 Significance of the Study

Robles (2007) states that while professionals in many other fields, such as medicine and law, are regularly involved in the development of their professional evaluation procedures, historically the educational practitioner has not been consulted regarding teacher evaluation. Traditionally, teachers have had little or no say in determining good practice with respect to professional evaluation and development (Gitlin, 1990). Teachers have been viewed as passive recipients of expertise from others (Mcgill,

1991). However, teachers bring to classrooms “beliefs, assumptions, values, opinions, preferences, and predispositions” (Sergiovanni, 1985, p.11), and Pajak (1986) believes that a sincere attempt to understand the teacher’s point of view as fully as possible is the “initial step” (p. 129) toward establishing a productive supervisory relationship aimed at developing their professional identity. He further states that this is consistent with Goldhammer and Cogan’s recommendations, who first outlined the steps of clinical supervision, in spite of the fact that those who try to assume a prescriptive approach of enforcing techniques and organizational policy find it “unconscionably equivocal” (Pajak, 1986, p.129).

Waite (1993, p. 676) states that “efforts aimed at understanding supervision and supervisory conferences have given little attention to the role *teachers* play in the process” (italics from the original). After analyzing ten books on supervision published between 1985 and 1995, Reitzug (1997) asserts that the teacher’s voice is lacking from the discussions about supervision. According to Zepeda and Ponticell (1998), “in supervision literature, studies based directly upon teachers' perspectives on supervision are few and far between” (p.70). They call for more research investigating teachers’ perspectives about supervision, positing that there is a dearth of research on this topic. Referring to three studies on this topic, they state that these studies may have been influenced by the context in which they were conducted. In their words:

Given the breadth and length of discourse among scholars and policymakers regarding the supervision of teachers, the field of supervision should not be satisfied with just three studies representing the perspectives of teachers. Far more research is needed from many contexts examining teachers' perspectives on supervision. (Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998, p.71)

Despite the fact that Zepeda and Ponticell made this call almost two decades ago, there have not been many studies on EFL teachers’ perceptions about supervisory practices in the context of foundation year programs in Saudi universities. More specifically, I did not find any studies conducted in Saudi universities that investigated EFL teachers’ perceptions regarding supervisory practices in-depth with a solutions-finding approach which focused on enlisting teachers’ support in addressing their concerns instead of just

giving the teachers an open platform for complaining about what is wrong with current supervisory practices. Considering all the above points, I felt I had the opportunity to not only contribute something to teacher development literature, but also to help make changes in the system which could make it more equitable for teachers in the context of the study.

1.5 Context

1.5.1 The Saudi Arabian Context

Saudi Arabia is the largest country in the Middle East, with a population of about 29 million. It is the birthplace of Islam and is home to the holy cities of Madinah and Makkah, which are visited by two to three million pilgrims from all over the world every year for Hajj. With the formation of the modern state of Saudi Arabia in 1932 and the subsequent discovery of oil in 1938, many changes occurred. Even before the discovery of oil, the need was felt to prepare Saudis to travel abroad and obtain a Western education in order to keep up-to-date with the needs of the twentieth century. Therefore, the Scholarship Preparation School (SPS) was established in 1936 in Makkah, and it is considered to be the beginning of modern day high school education in the KSA. This was the very first school in the KSA where the teaching of English was introduced (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). In 1958, English and French were introduced at the intermediate level in schools (grades 7-9). However, the Ministry of Education removed French in 1969 and it only remained in the higher secondary grades (10-12) (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). From 1970 to 2001, the teaching of English started from grade 7, and it continued for six years, until grade 12. However, in 2003, the Saudi government decided to introduce English into all primary schools (Elyas 2008). Presently, English is taught as a core subject in public and private schools across the country. English is also used as the medium of training in many organizations and companies such as Saudi Airlines, Saudi Aramco and the Saudi Telecommunication Company (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). In 2007, with the launch of the late King Abdullah's vision 2020 for his country, English was adopted as a medium of instruction for all science departments in the Saudi universities. As a result, these universities have established new English language departments, institutes or centers to run a Foundation Year Program or Preparatory

Year Program with a major focus on TESOL. After finishing high school, students proceed to the universities where they have to complete the mandatory preparatory year program (PYP). The PYP provides students with a foundation in English, mathematics, IT and other subjects.

1.5.2 The Setting of the Current Study

The setting of the current study is a foundation year program in the men's section of a university in Saudi Arabia. High school graduates are required to attend a one year preparatory English language program when they commence studies at this university. The one-year program is divided into four modules, with each module consisting of six or seven weeks of instruction. The four modules taught are beginner, elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate. Following the Common European Framework for Reference (CEFR), the courses offered are A1 (beginner), A2 (elementary), B1 (pre-intermediate) and B1+ (intermediate). There are more than 150 teachers from over 20 countries representing 5 continents in the foundation year program. Therefore, it should be noted that although the university is located within the Saudi context, the faculty of the foundation year program is from a wide geographical base and come from diverse backgrounds.

1.5.3 Classroom Observation and Professional Development

In the setting of the current study, the practice of observing teachers started fairly recently, about five or six years before the time of this study. Initially, it started with summative observations, with an observer visiting a class and having a verbal feedback session with the teacher afterwards, without any written documentation shared with the teacher before or after the observation. The observers were not English teachers and they were not working in the foundation year program. Instead, they were from other departments within the university, especially the engineering department. Since then, the observation cycle has become progressively more advanced and detailed. One year after the commencement of classroom observations, a new supervision program was implemented. Under the new system, classroom observations were conducted by the academic coordinators working within the foundation year program. These classroom

observations were an extra responsibility for academic coordinators, whose main responsibilities were mostly administrative and they did not teach any classes, although they were hired as EFL teachers for the foundation year program. The classroom observation was followed by a post-observation conference, with the teachers receiving a written evaluation report at the end of the cycle. In addition to the summative evaluation, informal developmental observations were also conducted, with each teacher being observed twice in an academic year. The first observation was developmental while the second was evaluative. Teachers were graded from one to five based on their performance during the observed lesson, one being unsatisfactory and five being outstanding. Two or three years after the implementation of the new system, there was another major change. A new unit was created under the name of Professional Development Unit (PDU), which has since been responsible for conducting formal and informal classroom observations. The members of the PDU were selected from within the pool of teachers teaching in the foundation year program. As opposed to the academic coordinators, the members of the PDU have to teach for at least half of the academic year. With the passage of every year, the PDU has brought changes in the system to make the supervision cycle as productive and transparent as possible. These changes include:

- (1) The addition of optional pre-observation meetings in the observation cycle.
- (2) Requiring all teachers to make developmental plans at the end of the year which are followed up next year.
- (3) Setting up an appeals procedure to deal with cases where teachers feel they deserve to be observed and 'graded' again.
- (4) Sharing the detailed evaluation criteria with teachers prior to the observation, so that teachers know exactly what the observers were required to look at.
- (5) Sharing model lesson plans with the teachers.
- (6) Making available videos of lessons that receive high scores in the evaluation report.
- (7) Standardization of observation procedures.
- (8) Restructuring of post-observation conferences based on recommendations from supervision literature.

(9) Conducting workshops and holding discussion groups on topics identified by teachers.

Despite all of these changes, there was still resistance to trainer feedback from the teachers. Teacher resistance manifested itself in different ways during the course of post-observation conferences: refusing to acknowledge any point of concern raised by the observer; disagreeing with the observer about different things; calling into question the observer's competence when anything less than a 'full mark'; arguing about the futility of the entire supervisory cycle etc. All of these points motivated me to conduct an in-depth study exploring teachers' perceptions about what they wanted from supervisory practices.

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

In this chapter (Chapter 1), I have described the background, aims, significance and context of the study. This will be followed by a review of literature (Chapter 2) in which I will discuss issues related to teacher supervision with the aim of identifying a gap in current teacher supervision literature that will be addressed by this study. After that, the methodology (Chapter 3) of the study will be described in detail, where I explain the choice of research paradigm, research design, ethical considerations, steps taken to ensure rigor and the limitations of the research design. The findings (Chapter 4) of the study will be presented next, where the aim is to describe the ideas that emerged from the analysis of a) documents used in the supervisory cycle and b) the interview data. The research questions will be answer in the discussion chapter (Chapter 5). Lastly, the conclusions (Chapter 6) of the study will be discussed where I provide a summary of findings, recommendations, limitations of the study, suggestions for further research, personal reflection of how the study affected my understanding as a practitioner in the field and a researcher and the study's contribution to the field.

I will now proceed to review the literature on teacher supervision in the following chapter, where I will first describe the layout of the literature review and my rationale for shaping it that way.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1 Outline of the Literature Review

The overarching aim of this literature review is to examine the basic tenets of teacher supervision, analyze them critically and then to take a deeper look at the critical views with the aim of analyzing their practical implications. This will lead to a discussion about teachers' perceptions on how they want to be supervised, which is the focus of this study. The reason for structuring the literature review in this way is to provide a focused, detailed discussion about the "thing itself" (teacher supervision) before reviewing teachers' perceptions about what they want from it. Therefore, the literature review is divided into four sections:

- 1) Teacher Supervision: An Overview
- 2) A Critical Analysis of Teacher Supervision Literature
- 3) A Deeper Look at Critical Teacher Supervision: Keeping a Balanced View
- 4) How Teachers Want to be Supervised

I will start with an overview of teacher supervision with a brief outline of its history and development. I will review what the essence of teacher supervision is and how experts in the field define it. This will be followed by a brief discussion of the emergence of clinical supervision and how different authors developed different variants from Cogan and Goldhammer's original models which were developed in the 1950s at Harvard University (Garman, 1990). I then discuss the criteria that supervisors are expected to consider while working within different models of supervision. There will then be an overview of supervisory systems based on different streams. The first section will conclude with an overview of the professional life cycles of teachers.

The second section will look at teacher supervision critically. The purpose of this section is to stress the impediments in reaching concordance about how teacher supervision should be conducted and what it means. It is not just a question of minor differences of

opinion between teachers and supervisors, but more serious issues, such as the transplanting of management models from military, industry and business models. The third section will attempt to analyze these critical views of teacher supervision. The aim in this part will be to highlight the necessity of adopting a more eclectic approach to supervision and highlight that, despite all the imperfections in supervisory models, there is still a need to supervise teachers to secure students' right to a quality education. The last section will review the existing literature on how teachers want to be supervised.

In all the sections, I will endeavor to paint a clear picture and be objective. I will try to avoid being ensnared by the trap of forcing and twisting different morsels from literature into a narrative that is only a rephrasing of my own personal beliefs. However, it must be kept in mind that whatever I write may have been influenced by my own *weltanschauung* (*outlook on life*). Therefore, I will discuss my own beliefs about the nature of reality and knowledge in detail so that my personal biases are transparent (ref. 3.2). This will allow the readers to develop a broader and more complete understanding regarding my findings and analyses. I do not want to be like the philosophers about whom Nietzsche (1886/2008) wrote:

They all pose as though their real opinions had been discovered and attained through the self-evolving of a cold, pure, divinely indifferent dialectic ... whereas, in fact, a prejudiced proposition, idea, or "suggestion," which is generally their heart's desire abstracted and refined, is defended by them....They are...very far from having the conscience which bravely admits this to itself, very far from having the good taste of the courage which goes so far as to let this be understood. (p. 422)

With this caveat in mind, I will start with part one, where I review the main tenets of teacher supervision, beginning with a very brief overview of its historical background and development since the late nineteenth century.

2.2 Teacher Supervision: An Overview

In 1875, William Payne wrote *Chapters on School Supervision*, the first published textbook on supervision (Garduño, Slater, & Gorosave, 2009), in which he called for

teachers to be held accountable for what they do in classrooms. Since then, countless volumes have been published on supervision, and different authors have written about their theories and how those theories should be put into practice by articulating steps, procedures and cycles of supervision. As a field, teacher supervision developed mainly in the United States (Garduño et al., 2009). By the end of the nineteenth century, schools were transformed into central administrative bureaucracies. Superintendents were put in charge as supervisors to deal with inefficiency and corruption (Glanz, 2000). Supervision was synonymous with inspection at this time. Balliet's ideas of supervision, which he articulated in 1894, summarized this inspectional approach. According to him, the only way to reform schools was to "secure a competent superintendent; second, to let him reform all the teachers who are incompetent and can be reformed; thirdly, to bury the dead" (Balliet, cited in Glanz, 2000, p.72). This top-down system was criticized by teachers and others (Rousmaniere, 1997). Calls were made to make supervision more collegial and democratic and to minimize the evaluative function. The reaction against autocratic supervision systems occurred in the 1920s (Glanz, 2000). In 1914, Elliott wrote about the difference between the centralization of administrative power, which he said stifled creativity and individuality, and "decentralized, cooperative, expert, supervision" (cited in Pajak, 2003, p.4). Hosic's "The Democratization of Supervision" (1920) was very much a sign of the times and there was a shift in the way supervision was viewed, but not necessarily a shift in the way it was practiced. This shift was manifest in various authors' articulation of views and beliefs about supervision, which were very different from the thinking that goes behind an inspectional model. For example, Nutt (1923) wrote:

Supervision is a cooperative undertaking in which both supervisor and teacher are to be mutually helpful and jointly responsible for the work in the classroom. (cited in Glanz, 2000, p. 75)

After the move away from autocratic supervision and evaluation of teachers in the 1920s, the focus was more on instructional improvement and supervision as inspection was no longer considered viable, as can be seen from the following quote from an editorial written in 1921:

If supervision were merely scientific management, or inspection or bossing the job, then truly it would have but little in common with the art of teaching. (cited in Glanz, 2000, p. 75)

What exactly is teacher supervision? The quotes mentioned above talk about collegiality, decentralization, cooperation and moving from inspection to instructional improvement, but beyond that, they are rather vague. As Bailey states (2006, p. 4): “Defining *supervision* is not a simple task”. Marzano, Waters and McNulty also write that despite being the most popular theme in educational leadership over the last two decades, the concept of instructional leadership is not well defined (cited in Finley, 2014, p.13). Anderson (1982) writes that the field of teacher supervision has “a variety of sometimes incompatible definitions, a very low level of popular acceptance, and many perplexing and challenging problems” (p.181). Anderson’s quote is all the more surprising because he wrote this more than a century after the publication of the first textbook on teacher supervision in 1875. The fact that the field of teacher supervision has no consensus on a definition that has gained popular acceptance is perhaps a reflection on the complex nature of the role itself. It means different things in different contexts. In part, the supervisor’s role is “culturally defined and conceptually located in the educational and political history of a particular region” (Bailey, 2006, p. 6). Zepeda (2013) uses the term ‘instructional leadership’ and sums up the difficulty of describing it as follows:

Instructional leadership is easy to see but difficult to define. The elusive nature of defining leadership is caused, in part, by the specific nature of the context of the school, the characteristics of the student body and personnel, the climate of the school, the culture and norms of the school, the communication patterns, and the values that the school holds as its own. (Zepeda, 2013, p.3)

She then states:

Effective principals engage in work that supports teachers in improving their instructional practices...what is working, what is not working, and how modifications can be made given the characteristics of students. (Zepeda, 2013, pp.10-11)

For Daresh (2001, p. 25), “supervision is a process of overseeing the ability of people to meet the goals of the organization in which they work”. Goldsberry (1988, p. 1) asserts that supervision is “an organizational responsibility and function focused upon the assessment and refinement of current practices”. According to Beach and Reinhartz (2000), supervisors’ primary role is to examine and analyze teaching behaviors in order to make recommendations regarding instructional improvement. These quotes suggest that supervision should be viewed as a cooperative process undertaken by a supervisor and supervisee with the aim of instructional improvement. How much cooperation exists, or what constitutes instructional improvement and the power relations between supervisor/supervisee will depend on the context. However, it must be kept in mind that supervision is about accountability as well as improvement. As Bailey (2006) states:

Teacher supervision is not just concerned with the creative and positive aspects of helping language teachers achieve their full potential....Supervision also includes less rewarding and rather unpleasant responsibilities, such as providing negative feedback, ensuring that teachers adhere to program policy, and even firing employees if the need arises. (p.5)

The 1950s and 1960s saw a significant development with the emergence of clinical supervision. Morris Cogan and Robert Goldhammer, stimulated by the frustrations they encountered as university supervisors trying to help beginning teachers (Pajak, 2003), used a grounded theory approach to compartmentalize the basic events of supervisory practice, which were labeled *phases* by Cogan and *stages* by Goldhammer (Garman, 1990). According to Pajak (2003):

Essentially, clinical supervision in education involves a teacher receiving information from a colleague who has observed the teacher’s performance and who serves as both a mirror and a sounding board to enable the teacher to critically examine and possibly alter his or her own professional practice. (p. 5)

Cogan (1973) considered clinical supervision to be a way to develop teachers who were open to change and assistance and were self-directing. He described eight phases of the supervisory cycle. Goldhammer (1969) adapted the eight phases into his five

stages, and this five stage sequence of clinical supervision remains the most widely known (Pajak, 2003). Goldhammer's five stages of the supervisory cycle are:

- (1) The pre-observation conference
- (2) Classroom observation
- (3) Data analysis and strategy
- (4) Post-observation conference
- (5) Post-conference analysis

Goldhammer was not the only one to build on Cogan's work on clinical supervision. Various influential authors such as Carl Glickman, Noreen Garman, Keith Acheson, Meredith Gall, Madeline Hunter, Kenneth Zeichner and John Smyth have written extensively about their interpretations of clinical supervision, and they are not always in agreement about its essence. For example, Smyth (1988) believes that Madeline Hunter's views about clinical supervision are not congruent with Goldhammer's efforts to invest control over teaching in the hands of teachers. In fact, he says that her views "[strike] at the very heart" of Goldhammer's views and are more in line with "factory-derived notions of scientific management" (p.137). While the accuracy of Smyth's dismissive remarks about Hunter's interpretations of clinical supervision can be debated, they do illustrate how great the differences can be between the views of different proponents of clinical supervision. Pajak's classification of the most popular approaches to clinical supervision into four families (2003) could help to achieve a better understanding of the different interpretations of various authors about clinical supervision, and I will review his classification briefly because from the time of its inception in the 1950s, discussion about clinical supervision in its many forms has dominated supervision literature.

According to Pajak (2003, p.8), the most popular approaches to clinical supervision can be classified into four families. These four families differ from each other in many ways, namely:

- The purposes toward which they strive

- Emphasis on objectivity versus subjectivity
- Type of data to be collected
- How to collect data
- Number of stages in the supervisory cycle
- Power relations between supervisor/supervisee
- Nature and structure of pre- and post-observation conferences

The four families into which Pajak classifies the different approaches to clinical supervision are:

1. The Original Clinical Models: The original models proposed by Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) emphasize the importance of collegial relations between supervisors and supervisees, the development of unique teaching styles and the cooperative discovery of meaning.

2. The Artistic/Humanistic Models: Proposed by Eisner (1979) and Blumberg (1974), these models emphasize personal intuition and artistry instead of relying on step by step procedures.

3. Technical/Didactic Models: Proposed by Acheson and Gall (1980) and Hunter (1984), these models draw heavily on findings from process-product and effective teaching research. These approaches focus on reinforcing 'effective' teaching behaviors and predetermined models of teaching to which teachers attempt to conform.

4. Developmental/Reflective Models: The models of Glickman (1985), Costa and Garmston (1994), Garman (1986), Smyth (1985) and Waite (1995) are sensitive to individual differences and to the social, political and cultural contexts of teaching. The importance of developing reflection among teachers and promoting justice and equity are emphasized in these models.

Within any supervision system, there are criteria (either assumed or put in writing in the form of a document such as an observation instrument or evaluation rubric) which supervisors are required to focus on and supervisees are expected to improve or demonstrate competence in. The choice of specific criteria and their interpretation will be influenced by the pedagogical belief systems of the people responsible for determining the supervision criteria. For example, regarding the correction of a student's errors when they are learning a second language, a supervisor whose pedagogical philosophy is influenced by the 'Audio-Lingual Method' would expect all student errors to be treated immediately and in public, whereas a supervisor using the 'Communicative Approach' might believe that errors should only be treated if they hinder students' efforts in communicating (Baily, 2006). Similarly, depending on the supervisors' philosophy regarding classroom management, it could be said about a class that it was noisy and misbehaved, or it could be said that it was well managed because the teacher was sensitive to individual learners' needs and did not stifle any learner's efforts to participate in class activities.

Regardless of the different ways in which supervisors might interpret or attach importance to the criteria, systematic analysis of lessons can focus on the following elements (adapted from Wragg, 2002, pp. 20-21):

<u>Personal traits:</u>	Traits of either teachers (e.g. friendly or aloof) or learners (e.g. focused on tasks or disruptive).
<u>Verbal interaction:</u>	What teachers and learners say to each other, teacher talk time, student talk time, choice of language register.
<u>Non-verbal:</u>	Movement, body language, facial expressions.
<u>Activities:</u>	The nature of students' activities.
<u>Class management:</u>	How the teacher responds to pupil behavior, organization of individual or pair/group work, classroom setting.
<u>Teaching skills:</u>	Questioning, explaining, arousing interest.

<u>Teaching aids:</u>	Use of audio-visual aids, such as projectors, computers, iPads, television, whiteboard and interactive whiteboards.
<u>Lesson delivery:</u>	Planning and preparation, pacing of the lesson, achieving the objectives and assessing student learning.
<u>Affective:</u>	Teachers' and pupils' feelings, emotions and interpersonal relationships.

As mentioned in the last paragraph, the way that supervisors focus on these criteria will be guided by their pedagogical belief system. In addition, the needs of individual educational organizations and the students enrolled in them will also influence the choice of criteria and how supervisors focus on them. The importance attached to student talk time will be much greater in a language institute that offers eight-week spoken English courses than, for instance, in a university English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course focusing on medical terminology.

A review of teacher supervision would not be complete without a discussion of supervisory systems that have different streams that address the needs of different teachers. Whereas some supervisory systems require all teachers to engage in the same supervisory practices regardless of their age, experience and level of abstraction, some supervisory systems outline different activities for teachers in different stages of their professional lives. One such system is Glickman's 'Developmental Supervision' model (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2010). In Glickman's system, a supervisor has to choose from one of four approaches:

- 1) The directive control approach
- 2) The directive informational approach
- 3) The collaborative approach
- 4) The nondirective approach

The four approaches differ from each other in the nature and level of control and involvement on the part of the supervisor. In the *directive control approach*, the supervisor identifies a problem, describes it to the teacher and tells them how to

address the issue. The supervisor also informs the teacher how the required action will help address the issue. He/she summarizes what is expected and tells the teacher about a follow up that would determine whether or not the expectations are met. In short, the supervisor controls everything and is responsible for providing a concrete plan to the teacher for solving the problem that necessitated supervisory intervention. This approach is not adopted to humiliate or punish a teacher, but to provide straightforward, concrete assistance to a teacher who is facing serious difficulty (Glickman et al., 2010).

The *directive informational approach* is for teachers who are not capable (cognitively) or motivated to solve complex instructional problems. However, they do have the ability to choose from concrete alternatives suggested by a supervisor. Therefore, in this approach, the supervisor suggests different alternatives to a teacher and then lets them choose whatever they feel is appropriate for their students. According to Glickman et al., “the idea of choice is critical to the directive informational approach” (2010, p.122). Once the teacher chooses an alternative, they will work out the specifics of an action plan and a follow up.

In the *collaborative approach*, the teacher and the supervisor work together and share ideas. The teacher is encouraged by the supervisor to present their own perceptions. There is a frank exchange of ideas. During the course of the conversation, the supervisor tries to steer the dialogue to areas where there is a possibility of agreement. In the end, the teacher and the supervisor either agree on a plan of action or end up without agreement. If this happens, the teacher and supervisor would either have to meet again to renegotiate and rethink the problem or possibly use a third party as a mediator or arbitrator.

The non-directive approach is used with teachers who are able to identify for themselves what instructional changes are required and have the ability to think and act on their own. The supervisor’s role is only to keep the teacher focused on the issue at hand by providing feedback or simply aiding in extending the teachers thinking. The

supervisor will not interject their own ideas in the discussion; they will only help the teacher arrive at their own conclusions.

Glickman et al. (2010) list in detail when each of these approaches should be used for particular teachers. The supervisor has to make the choice based on certain factors, which are illustrated in the diagram below:

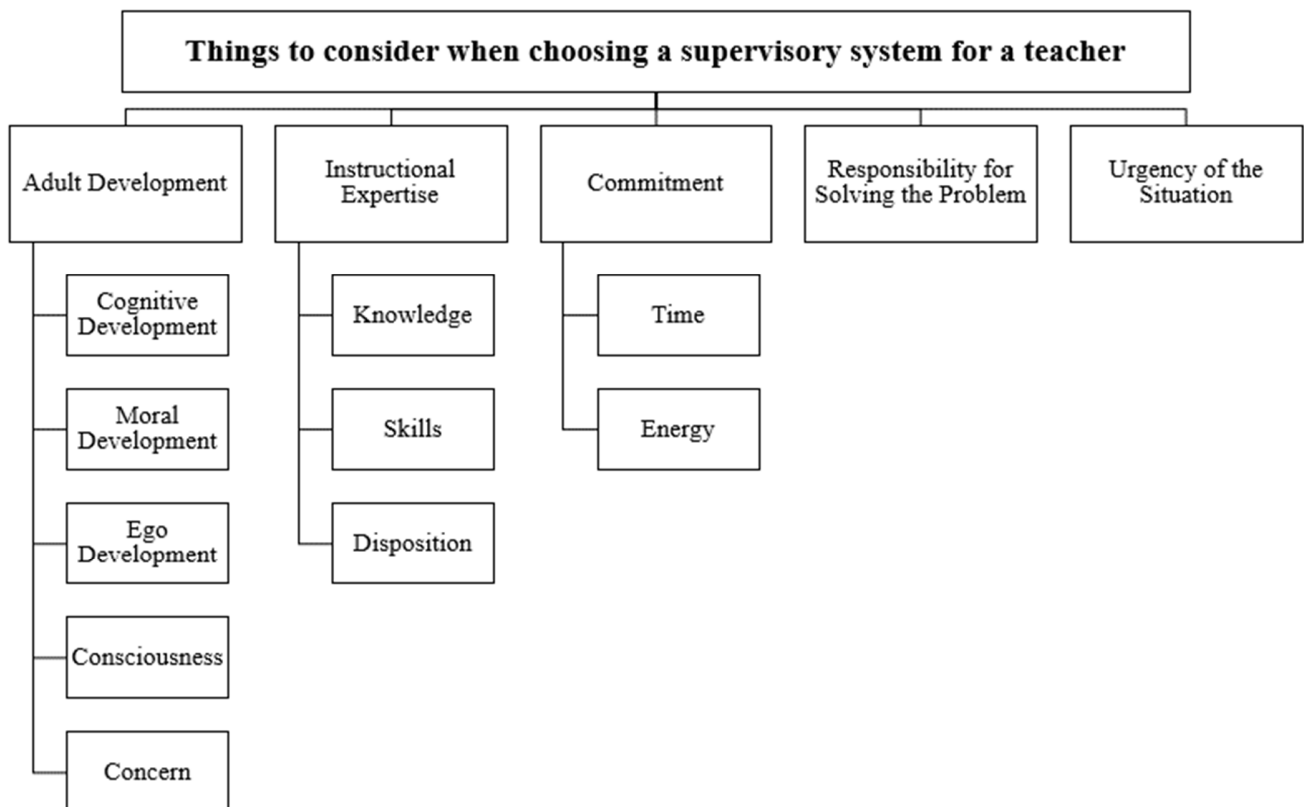


Figure 1: Things to consider when choosing a supervisory system for a teacher, according to Glickman et al., 2010

The following table gives more details on the level of each of these items which inform the choice of a particular supervisory approach:

Considerations for Selecting Supervisory Approach

	Directive Control Approach	Directive Informational Approach	Collaborative Approach	Nondirective Approach
<i>Teacher's Adult Developmental Level</i>	Very Low	Moderately Low	Moderately High or Mixed	Very High
<i>Teacher's Level of Instructional Expertise</i>	Very Low	Moderately Low	Moderately High	Very High
<i>Teacher's Level of Commitment</i>	Very Low	Moderately Low	Moderately High	Very High
<i>Teacher's Responsibility for Solving Problem</i>	Very Low	Moderately Low	Same as Supervisor's	Very High
<i>Supervisor's Responsibility for Solving Problem</i>	Very High	Moderately High	Same as Teacher's	Very Low
<i>Urgency of Situation</i>	Very High	Moderately High	Moderately Low	Very Low

Table 1: From Glickman et al., 2010, p.153

It's apparent that the supervisor's role is crucial in this model. According to Zepeda (2013, p.51), "the success of developmental supervision rests on the supervisor's ability to assess the conceptual level of the teacher or a group of teachers and then to apply a supervisory approach that matches this level". Another point which Glickman et al. themselves highlight is a caveat about the table (Table 1) in which they list the considerations for selecting a supervisory approach. These variables do not always line up the way they are given in the table. In their own words:

The decision about which supervisory approach to use is straightforward if the measures for each variable in [the Table] line up under one of the four supervisory approaches. However, individual or group levels of adult development, expertise, and commitment, as well as responsibility for solving the problem and the urgency of the situation, can vary or fluctuate, which means that choosing the best approach can become more complicated than the broad guidelines just discussed might suggest. (Glickman et al., 2010, p.151-152)

In short, these variables as listed by Glickman et al. should act as guidelines for supervisors, who will have the actual responsibility of judging which supervisory approach to adopt for each teacher on a case by case basis.

Glatthorn's 'Differentiated Supervision' model describes different streams for development and evaluation, which are outlined in the figure below:

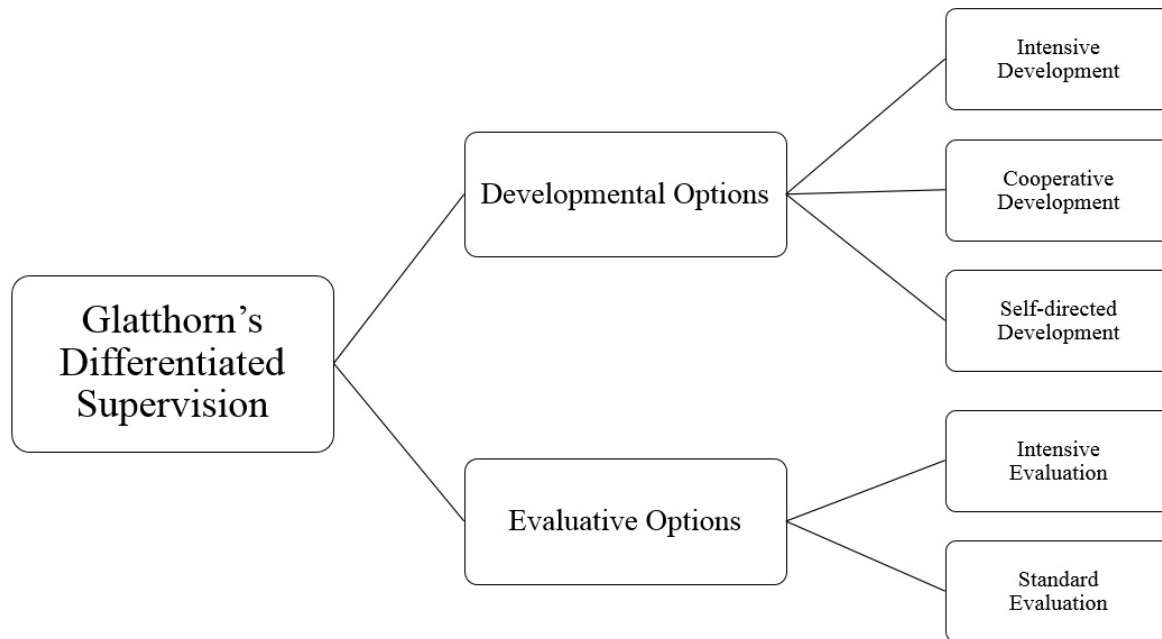


Figure 2: Streams in Glatthorn's Differentiated Supervision (1997)

This model provides *intensive development* to non-tenured teachers and to tenured teachers with serious problems (Glatthorn, 1997). The other categories of teacher have two options. Most work in teams in the *cooperative development* mode. The third option in the developmental stream is *self-directed development*, which is for experienced, competent teachers who prefer to work on their own to foster their professional development. According to Zepeda:

These teachers have the ability to direct a program of study that addresses their own personal and professional learning needs. In self-directed supervision, the teacher takes the initiative to select an area of interest or need, locate available resources for meeting goals, and develop and carry out a plan for learning and development. (2013, p.55)

In this model, as in Glickman's Developmental Supervision, the supervisor has the crucial role of determining which option is appropriate for each teacher.

In the evaluative stream in Glatthorn's model, the supervisor will decide which of the two options will be required for each teacher: *intensive evaluation* or *standard evaluation*. The supervisor's decision will be informed by the teacher's competence level and whether or not he/she is tenured. *Intensive evaluation*, like *intensive development*, is for all non-tenured teachers and tenured teachers who appear to have serious instructional problems. They have several observations and their non-instructional functions are evaluated. This is typically carried out by a school administrator. *Standard evaluation* is conducted as a compliance mechanism to satisfy policy requirements. This option is for teachers who are known to be competent and experienced. The minimum number of observations and conferences are carried out for these teachers (Glatthorn, 1997). Glatthorn believes that his model addresses the workload problems by focusing supervisors' efforts where they are required. He states:

Supervisors need a realistic solution to the problem of finding time for effective supervision...Differentiated supervision enables the supervisor to focus clinical efforts on those teachers needing or requesting them, rather than providing perfunctory, ritualistic visits for all teachers. (Glatthorn, 1997, p.5)

Danielson and McGreal (2000) also outline a multi-stream supervisory system. It has three tracks:

Track 1: The Beginning Teacher Program

Track 2: The Professional Development Track

Track 3: The Teacher Assistance Track

According to them, it is important to have a multi-stream supervisory system because "a teacher's career...has a distinct life cycle" (Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p.28). According to them, it takes considerable time and support to acquire skilful practice, because teaching is a complex job. However, once a teacher attains a certain level of teaching proficiency, their professional learning takes a different form. It no longer remains the same as what they experienced earlier in their career. It can become more self-directed. Similarly, there is a possibility that at times, teachers' level of proficiency

can decline because of a variety of different reasons. In this case, they can benefit from higher levels of support and more intensive assistance (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). They further state: "This suggests that the procedures used in the evaluation process can be different for those at different stages in their careers" (Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p.28).

Inter-connected with the idea of differentiated supervision is the idea of professional life cycles. Many authors have written about teachers' professional life cycles and how their priorities and outlooks vary depending on what part of their career or life they are in. Some of these professional life cycles models are linear while others are cyclical. Steffy, Wolfe, Pasch and Enz (2000) have described 6 different phases in the professional life cycle of teachers: novice, apprentice, professional, expert, distinguished, emeritus. Sikes's (1985) work was mostly based on teacher perceptions about themselves based on their age. She followed teachers from their probationary year right up to their retirement. Using biographical and narrative approaches, she investigated how teachers perceive and adapt to aging. She outlines five phases of teachers' careers which correspond with their broader life cycles.

Huberman's (1989, 1995) work has also been influential in this field. He was interested in how teachers viewed themselves based on the number of years they have been in the job. He described the career phases as experienced by middle school and high school teachers in Geneva. He conducted lengthy interviews with 160 teachers and developed his model which details the "general trends in the professional life cycle of teachers" (Huberman, cited in Rolls & Plauborg, 2009, p. 10). The following diagram illustrates the stages of a teacher's career as described by Huberman:

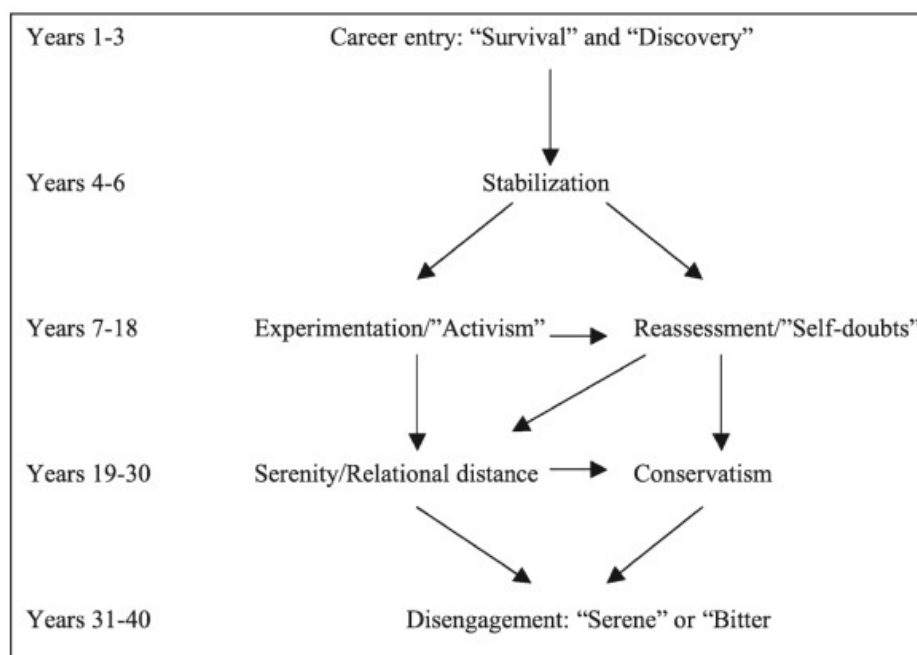


Figure 3: Themes of the teacher career cycle as described by Huberman (as given in Stone-Johnson, 2009, p. 191)

It is beyond the scope of this discussion to review all the phases described by Huberman. What is important is that he found that teachers at different stages in their careers had different outlooks on their professional lives.

Ralph Fessler (Fessler & Christensen, cited in Rolls & Plauborg, 2009) developed his 'Teacher Career Cycle Model' based on extensive empirical studies. The purpose of his model is to help arrive at a better understanding of teachers' professional lives by taking into account the effects of various factors (related to their working environment or personal lives) on their motivation, commitment and enthusiasm at different stages of their careers. Fessler (Fessler & Christensen, cited in Rolls & Plauborg, 2009) identifies eight career stages, but emphasizes that these are not to be understood as comprising a straightforward linear development. Teachers can move between the stages based on the influence of different factors related to their working environment or personal lives.

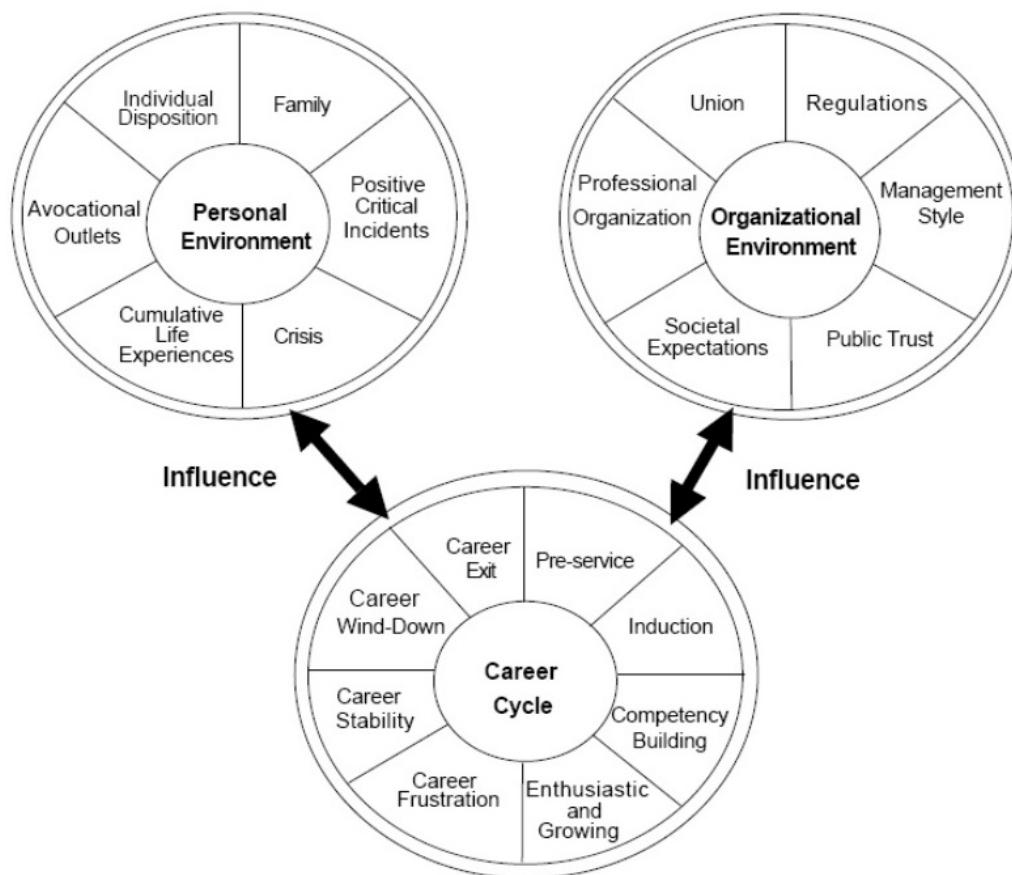


Figure 4: Fessler's Teacher Career Cycle Model (from Gaudreault & Woods, 2013, p. 53)

Another influential study on teachers' professional life phases was carried out by Day et al. (2006). Between 2001 and 2005, they undertook the VITAE project (Variations in Teachers' Work, Lives and Their Effects on Pupils), which was commissioned by the UK Department for Education and Skills. The main part of this project was a longitudinal study of the lives and careers of 309 teachers from 100 different schools representing a broad range of socio-economic contexts and pupil attainment levels (Day et al., 2006). Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used, such as interviews, teacher and pupil questionnaires and pupil assessment data. The study identified six professional life phases, grouped according to the number of years a teacher has spent within the profession. Within each life phase, teachers were further categorised into sub-groups based "on their perceived identity, motivation, commitment and effectiveness" (Day et

al., 2006, p. 86). This model is different from the other professional life cycles models discussed in this chapter in that the emphasis is on teacher effectiveness and how this changes over the course of teachers' careers and lives.

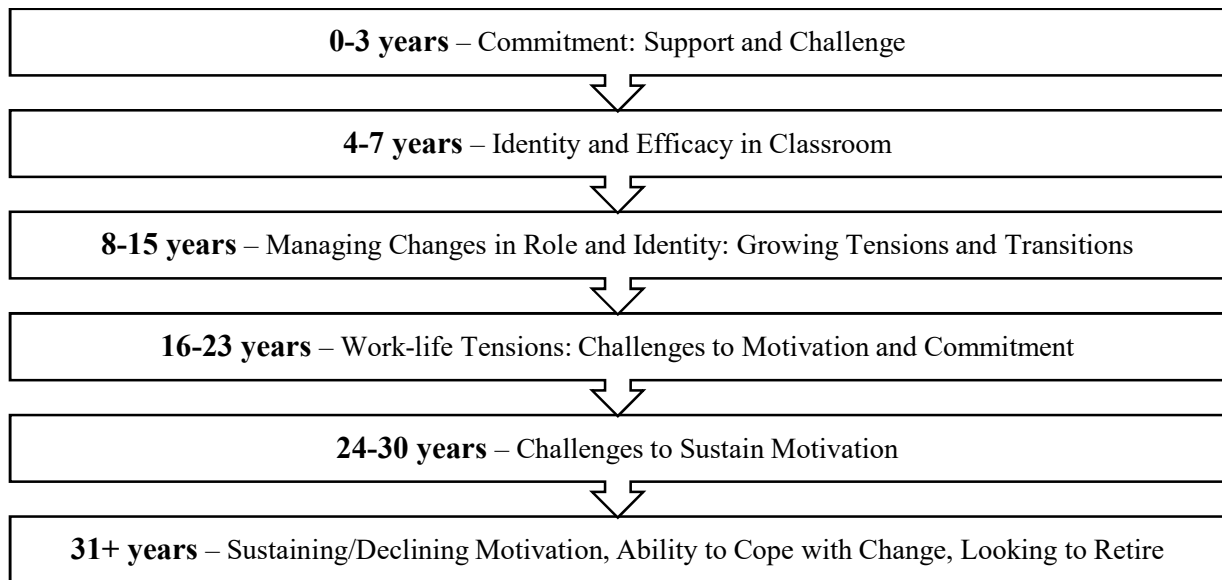


Figure 5: Professional Life Phases in Teacher Careers (Day et al., 2006)

None of these models are supposed to be prescriptive. As Sikes (1985) states:

Teachers do not all follow the same occupational career path, nor are their lives necessarily similar in other respects—each has their own idiosyncratic biography. Yet their accounts do suggest a common developmental sequence of stages or phases each of which seems to be associated with an evaluation and perhaps a redefinition and/or re- ordering of interests, commitments and attitudes, frequently in response to events and experiences not directly connected with the work situation. (p.29)

Huberman has also suggested that the identification of phases and sequences should be viewed “gingerly” as being descriptive rather than normative (Woodward, 2013). As Britzman (1992) and Danielewicz (2001) (cited in Johnston, 2015) suggest, teachers never arrive at a completed or fixed identity but are always in the process of developing them. Therefore, we should view these models as tools that help us identify teacher traits and peculiarities so that we can understand their point of view and their ‘weltanschauung’ (outlook on life) better. According to Woodward, professional life

cycles models are useful because they are catalysts that help us think about our own and other teachers' careers (Woodward, 2013). By developing a better understanding of the constituent elements that go into the formation of a teachers' professional character and philosophy, instructional leaders will be able to deal with their specific needs in a better way. According to Lynn:

Teacher development theory is predicated on the assumption that the needs of the beginning or novice teacher in the induction phase differ from that of an experienced teacher who has reached the enthusiasm and growth stage or has entered the stable phase. As a result, teachers must be motivated to seek continual growth through professional development that advocates personalized and individualized support systems. (Lynn, 2002, p. 182)

So far, I have reviewed the basic tenets of teacher supervision. I have discussed how it developed as a field towards the end of the nineteenth century in the United States. It was synonymous with inspection in the beginning, but around the 1920s, there was a shift toward making supervision more collegial and democratic and making it more about instructional improvement than evaluation. This trend continued until the 1950s and 1960s, which saw a major development with Cogan and Goldhammer's description of clinical supervision, which articulated steps of the supervisory cycle. Since then, many authors have written about their interpretations of clinical supervision and there have been many points of difference between different authors. This was followed by a brief outlining of the criteria that could be used to supervise teachers. Finally, there was a review of differentiated supervisory programs and professional life cycles of teachers. In the next part, I will continue my discussion about teacher supervision, but my focus will now be to view the field of supervision from a critical stance with the aim of exposing the power relations that are embedded in supervisor/supervisee relationship.

2.3 Critical View of Teacher Supervision

The definitions of teacher supervision quoted in the previous section refer to collegiality, democracy, and above all, instructional improvement. Exactly what constitutes "improvement" or whose view of improvement is valid, or who decides if improvement has taken place or not is not clear. Reitzug (1997) states:

Frequently those in power (e.g., principals, supervisors) position their interpretation of reality as the only correct interpretation, and alternative interpretations are viewed as inappropriate, counterproductive, or wrong. In the supervisory process, therefore, teachers and supervisors may interpret quite differently the teaching that best meets the interests of particular students. (Reitzug, 1997, p. 330)

Generally, there is an embedded assumption in definitions of supervision that people in managerial positions have a better understanding of teaching than the teachers and that they have the knowledge, expertise and training to supervise teachers. However, that is not always true. Bailey (2006) states:

Teacher supervision [is] a profession that many teachers enter almost by accident. Teachers can be promoted into supervisory positions for many reasons: they are excellent teachers, they have experience, they have “people skills,” they are seen as loyal to the administration, they have seniority, and so on. Seldom are teachers made supervisors because they have had specific professional preparation for the role. (Bailey, 2006, p.xiii)

She further states that “It is often assumed that teachers who are promoted to supervisorial positions will automatically know how to supervise” (p.3). With no formal professional training, supervisors might work “at an instinctive level ... or at the level of folk models about what supervisors do” (Wajnryb, 1995, p. 8). In such circumstances, supervisors and teachers could find themselves arguing down a theoretical cul-de-sac. Teaching, being so bound to contextual factors, does not lend itself to ‘one-size fits all’ approaches and will be “complicated by the uniqueness of individual practitioners and individual students” (Nicholson–Goodman & Garman, 2007, p. 296). Supervisors and teachers may argue about what is research-based, but in truth, it is possible that in such circumstances, “research-based” can become a “rhetorical device for wielding power and/or enacting seduction” (Nicholson–Goodman & Garman, 2007, p.285).

The teacher/supervisor relationship in most cases is that of inequality where the trainer is presumed to be the expert with the intellectual capital whose responsibility it is to train and impart knowledge to the intellectually impoverished teacher. The fact that in some contexts, teachers can easily be more qualified and educated than the trainer imposed

on them by the institution they work for is overlooked; the very position of the supervisor itself dictates that he/she will evaluate and train the teacher. One of the reasons for this vertical hierarchical relation is that historically, educational supervision has been directly influenced by the 'assembly line' supervision model used in factories to control subordinates (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1989). Waite (1995), writing about the early development of the field of supervision in the USA, states:

Unfortunately, instructional leaders, as is often the case even today, adopted and adapted that which was close to hand, taking their lead from the military and business. I say 'unfortunately' because many of the problems facing educational reform today can be laid at the feet of these now archaic organizational patterns and their vestiges. (p. 2)

The proclivity to transplant management models from other fields into education still remains. Peck and Reitzug (2012) have written about how ideas and strategies originally developed for business leadership become fashionable and gain influence in the K-12 education sector. They focus on three business management models, (1) Management by Objectives, (2) Total Quality Management, and (3) Turnaround, and state that existing business models cross over into education after a time lag, gain broad but fleeting influence due to the support they receive from stakeholders but ultimately fade away as discarded reforms. They end their paper with some important questions:

Are educational leaders consigned, like perpetual little siblings, to accept the hand-me-down fashions of our big siblings in the business sector? ...Can educational leadership foster real and locally sourced innovation that prioritizes and attends to the unique circumstances of leading schools, rather than relying on and promoting the tenets of existing, and possibly outdated, business concepts? (Peck & Reitzug, 2012, p. 375)

Referring back to the discussion about tensions in supervisor/supervisee working relation because of the hierarchical setting in educational institutions, I argue that teachers can get a feeling of disempowerment because of the way supervisory systems are implemented because the social relationships being enacted in these situations are

influenced by top-down and factory driven notions (Smyth, 1988). These traditional views of supervision perpetuate “the imbalance of power by placing administrators and other nonteaching personnel in supervision roles and by combining evaluation with supervision” (Showers, 1985, pp. 46-47).

Buzz-words that are used in an attempt to mask reality should be approached with caution. As Smyth (1991) states:

The rhetoric of supervision is compelling enough, couched as it is in terms of "improvement of teaching" through a collaborative process of consultation, observation, analysis, and feedback. Terms like "mutual trust," "collegiality," and "teacher autonomy" are seductive nomenclature . . . contradiction becomes apparent when we preach collegiality, collaboration, and teacher autonomy, while imposing clinical supervision upon teachers. (p. 47)

Smyth is here referring to situations where institutions impose supervision programs on teachers, who are forced to ‘develop’ themselves professionally. Managerial demands/requirements for professionalism can easily have unintended consequences, such as creating an ‘audit culture’ in which the services of professionals are evaluated and enumerated, leading to the commodification of their services (Svensson & Evetts, 2003). This, according to Evetts (2012, p. 22), in turn “necessitat[es] supervision, assessment and audit”. She further states:

Attempts to measure and demonstrate professionalism actually increase the demand for explicit auditing and accounting of professional competences. Thus, managerial demands for quality control and audit, target setting and performance review become reinterpreted as the promotion of professionalism. (Evetts, 2012, p. 22)

Hargreaves and Shirley (cited in Hökkä & Eteläpelto, 2014, p. 40) also touch on this subject by stating that “the global context of market competition, the professional independence of teachers and educators and a previous culture of trust are being replaced by ideals of accountability, efficacy, and productivity”. Smyth (1988) states that approaches where supervisors try to evaluate and prescribe teaching instead of empowering teachers and investing control of teaching in their hands have a lot in

common with “the factory-derived notions of scientific management from whence they emanate” (p.137). To underscore his point, Smyth uses a provocative quote from Frederick Taylor (cited in Smyth, 1988), who is credited with the development of “scientific management” as an idea:

One of the first requirements for a man who is fit to handle pig iron is that he shall be so stupid and so phlegmatic that he more nearly resembles the ox than any other type...He must consequently be trained by a man more intelligent than himself. (p.137)

Smyth states that while people “may not openly espouse such a degrading point of view, they are through their actions implicitly endorsing a way of working that is deeply embedded in Taylor's ideology” (Smyth, 1988, p.137). It is not the accountability or advice that teachers resent or fear. “They resent being an object rather than a partner in the process” (Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998, p. 77). Indeed, according to Down and Smyth (2012, p. 13), “There are so many points at which teachers’ work is being debased, demeaned, derided, denigrated, disparaged, distorted, deformed and compromised”. The working relation between teachers and supervisors is often an uneasy one and much literature on teacher education and supervision refers to this (Aubusson, Steele, Dinham, & Brady, 2007; Bailey, 2006; Borich, 1994; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Kilbourn et al. 2005). Blumberg labeled it a “private cold war” (1980).

Top-down and inspectional approaches that are implemented with no sincere attempt at development are likely to be of limited value. Hoy and Forsyth (1986) state that “Most supervisory programs are piecemeal and eventually degenerate into meaningless rituals required by law and/or boards of education” (p.50). However, it is not easy for teachers to speak out against such hierarchical and top-down systems. Often, institutions have a way of keeping the status quo and controlling outspoken employees. Herr (2005), for example, writes about administrators mandating mediation to resolve conflict and states that in relegating conceptual critique as a case of ‘difference of opinion’ between two individuals, it requires individuals to bring changes in themselves and deflects the focus away from institutional practices that led to the differences in the first place. She states:

Often, in higher education, ideological clashes, relationships of power and hierarchical control get recast as problems of communication and/or personal problems between faculty members. (Herr, 2005, p. 21)

Smyth (1988, p. 136) claims that the concept of clinical supervision, as conceived by Goldhammer and Cogan, has become “twisted and tarnished” and that in practice, it has “taken on many of the features of a sinister and sophisticated form of teacher surveillance and inspection”. Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) discuss this issue in their qualitative study. The participants in their study spoke at length about how their beliefs and perceptions of trainer-trainee interaction were affected by the seemingly irrational forms supervision had come to assume in their context, which, one hopes, would not have been intended or envisaged by those who designed the program. Some of the quotes from the participants discuss quite candidly the haunting realities that may resonate with teachers in different contexts. For some of the participants, supervision was a “dog and pony show” (p.77), with the teachers required to produce two performances a year, one in spring and one in fall. Trying to deliver a ‘real’ lesson during the observation was risky; it was far safer to jam all the required skills that were part of the checklist used as an observation instrument to demonstrate ‘good’ teaching. One teacher wrote how he received a very high score by employing this strategy, despite the fact that when he returned to the topics taught during the observation afterwards, students had not developed competence in the content. Some supervisors used evaluation visits as weapons to keep teachers humble and punish perceived disloyalty. These and other elements led the teachers to view some aspects of supervision to have limited value. Perhaps in all of these points, we have the answer to the question posed by Kilbourn et al. (2005) when they said:

Veteran teachers typically support the idea of feedback but seldom welcome the actual practice of it... Still, conventional wisdom and casual observation suggest that both novices and veterans could sometimes benefit from high-quality, constructive feedback. Why are teachers nervous about feedback while extolling its virtues . . . for someone else? (Kilbourn et al., 2005, pp. 298-299)

Convincing teachers of the developmental benefits of trainer-trainee interaction becomes a challenge when the boundaries between development and evaluation are not clear. In the field of teacher supervision, developmental supervision and evaluation are described as two different concepts, and “no amount of linguistic maneuvering will reconcile the two for teachers” (Hazi, as cited in Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998, p. 85). Garman’s (1986) appeal is as cogent today as it was three decades ago when she said:

If supervision is really teacher evaluation, then we should say it out loud and insist that those who profess to know about effective teaching also be accountable for their expertise. Moreover, we must make a distinction between clinical supervision and clinical evaluation in the professional literature. They are different functions both in theory and practice. (Garman, 1986, p. 155)

The confusion and uncertainty which arises when supervision involves both the development and evaluation of teachers can arise for a variety of reasons. For example, the culture of “visitation, judgment, and prescription” (Garman, 1986, p. 148) is so embedded in educational practice that even after a supervisory program is implemented with developmental aspirations, it turns into a cost-effective way for institutions to evaluate teachers. After all, a genuine desire for professional development has the tendency to “dissipate into impracticable rhetoric at some stage during the translation from what is required to what is enacted” (Evans, 2008, p. 28). Zeichner and Tabachnick (cited in Zeichner & Liston, 1985) also refer to this issue:

Teacher educators should not take it for granted that, because a practice or procedure is described in a particular way by program planners, its implementation takes the form and has the social meaning that its originators intended...the essential characteristics of teacher education programs are not to be found in public statements of intention, but through examinations of the experiences themselves. (p. 156)

However, there is a possibility of there being a more disquieting reason for the synonymizing of development and evaluation. It could be a simple case of ‘sugar-coating’ a less palatable reality to make it easier for administrators to sell it to teachers. Pulley (1994), in his paper “Doublespeak and Euphemisms in Education”, writes about

the proclivity to use substitute words to make the referent sound less offensive or even with the intention to deceive people. He writes:

As educators, we are not immune to the use of deceptive or evasive language. Sadly, however, when we engage in such practice, we violate at least two qualities that should serve as foundations for our profession-integrity and the ability to communicate accurately. Although language necessarily changes and evolves with the passing of time, perhaps we should attempt to slow down that process by being more selective and accurate in our choice of words, and refrain from speaking with forked tongue. (Pulley, 1994, p. 273)

In this section, I have discussed some of the critical issues about teacher supervision. These were related to the imbalance in power relations in the teacher/supervisor working relationship, the transplanting of models from other fields such as military and business models, the problem of reconceptualizing an audit culture as professional development and the confusion and mixing of development and evaluation. In the next section, I will analyze these critical views and attempt to show that criticality has at times been pushed to irrational extremes.

2.4 A Deeper Look at Critical Teacher Supervision: Keeping a Balanced View

As stated at the end of the previous section, the limits of criticality in teacher supervision are sometimes pushed to extremes. Before I build on this point, I want to emphasize the need for a self-reflexive stance on critical theory. As Pennycook (1999) states:

I argue for a *self-reflexive* stance on critical theory. First, we as TESOL professionals need to be constantly careful lest critical theory come to play a role that is equally unchallenged as the ideas it seeks to challenge. Thus, critical pedagogy in TESOL must not become a static body of knowledge but rather must always be open to question. (p. 345)

This is an important point, because introducing a critical stance is not only about problematizing, but problematizing for the sake of attaining justice and confronting inequality and oppression. When the focus shifts from attaining justice and criticality is pushed to irrational extremes which demand solutions that are not practical or lead to the marginalization of another group at the expense of the ones for whom justice is

being sought, then there is a need to consider the critical perspective and to critique the critique. Critical teacher supervision has at times been pushed to extremes, especially by those who are the proponents of a postmodern view of teacher supervision. The works of authors such as Garman (1986), Smyth (1988, 1991), Gordon (1992) and Waite (1995) outline that postmodern supervision should be

1. Collegial
2. Non-evaluative
3. Non-directional

Some authors with a postmodern view eschew the term “supervision” because it connotes surveillance and control, and advocate the use of other terms, such as instructional leadership (Glickman, 1992; Gordon, 1997; Sergiovanni, 1992). Under such an approach, anything remotely connected to directive methods is avoided.

While such an approach has its benefits in empowering teachers, I do not think such a narrow view of supervision is viable. Glanz (2000) notes that supervision in current times has been reconceptualized in the postmodern sense and states that “Inclusivity and an acceptance of diverse ideas about theory and practice of supervision do not appear to dominate discourse on supervision” (p. 82).

Proponents of what I consider to be over-critical views of supervision write about collegiality and non-directive methods but their views “[offer] little solace and [don’t] provide much direction for practitioners in the field” (Glanz, 2000, p. 80). Although proponents of postmodern supervisory practice might argue that they do not advocate a laissez-faire approach for teachers, the tenuous nature of their approach to practical solutions makes it difficult for practitioners to gain a lot in terms of practical steps that they could adapt and implement in their contexts. For instance, after highlighting examples of teacher-deficit assumptions in supervision books, Reitzug (1997) states:

[It is] not [being] suggest[ed] that principals should adopt a laissez-faire attitude toward teaching. However, a distinct difference exists between a perspective that

assumes something is wrong with a teacher's teaching and a perspective that recognizes teaching as a complex endeavor that requires continual study. (Reitzug, 1997, p. 331)

It is true that teachers should not be marginalized and treated like workers in an assembly line by the supervisors. However, to concur with the perspective that teaching is indeed a complex endeavor that requires continual study neither absolves the teacher from the responsibility of providing quality education to students nor the supervisor from the responsibility to oversee the process. Harris (1997) writes:

If a superordinate goal shared by teachers, supervisors, students, parents, and the larger society can be clearly identified, it surely must be that of improving learning opportunities for all students....Ensuring that all children have access to teaching that promotes significant learning...is not a collegial responsibility. (pp.146-147)

He further writes that to secure the students' right to meaningful learning, supervisors need to ensure that teachers' efforts are up to standard and to initiate supervisory intervention when they feel it is required.

The field of second language instruction saw the rise of different approaches and methodologies in the last century, such as 'Audio Lingual Method', 'Silent Way', 'Total Physical Response' and 'Communicative Approach'. A more empowering approach is the eclectic approach where teachers choose and adapt different approaches, methodologies and methods for their own context. In fact, almost all modern course books have a mixture of approaches and methodologies ("Eclectic Approach", n.d.). Perhaps a similar approach in teacher supervision is warranted, where educators stop thinking in absolutes (right or wrong way in all instances) and consider the efficacy of practices in relation to the contexts in which they are being used. An eclectic approach to teacher supervision is more practical, which can at the same time be critical and also have sensible levels of directional techniques as required by the needs of the teacher and the institution.

It should be kept in mind that the supervisor and the teacher are not the only, or even the most important, stakeholders in a supervisory cycle. The most important

stakeholders are the students, and if there is a situation where it is felt that a teacher is not fulfilling his or her commitment to providing quality education, supervisory intervention should be initiated, which could be directive if need be. Supervisors should not shy away from directive supervision just because it is unpalatable to those who adhere to a postmodern view of supervision, because refusal to initiate directive supervisory intervention would be an injustice for the students of those teachers who are in need of directive supervision. As Harris states, "To abdicate leadership for instructional change in exchange for collegiality could be an educational tragedy" (1997, p. 150).

I want to conclude this critique of critical supervision by observing that at all times there needs to be an acute awareness on the part of the supervisors that they do not enact social roles that make the teachers feel they are slaves in a system with no way to participate in the supervisory cycle beyond acting as passive consumers of random and generalized advice.

So far, I have discussed teacher supervision and the shortcomings of top-down approaches to supervision. I have also discussed that highlighting the imperfections in how supervisory roles are enacted does not justify 'pedagogical anarchy' or a laissez faire approach to teaching. Teachers are still responsible for providing quality education to students and educational institutions have a responsibility to the students and their parents/guardians to make sure teachers are doing just that. The next step will be to explore teachers' perceptions on supervision and the ways in which they want to be supervised since that could help bridge the gap between top-down supervision systems and postmodern critical views of teacher supervision.

2.5 How Teachers Want to be Supervised

In this section I will discuss teachers' perceptions about instructional supervision with a "solution finding" approach. My focus will be to highlight teachers' opinions on possible solutions instead of only dwelling on what the teachers say does not work for them. It is logical to give teachers a platform to voice their opinions about ways to improve the

supervisory systems. Highlighting the shortcomings in current supervisory practices is only the first step in improvement. As Goldsberry states:

Certainly, [the] observation that the climate of a school can influence events is neither disputable nor novel. Absolutely, we need to document the obstacles to implementing clinical supervision in the schools and record and publish adaptation processes and consequences. Assuredly, we must put such ideas as colleague consultation and clinical supervision to the test of fire by applying them and documenting their impact. (1984, p.11)

The next step is to find ways to make the supervisory cycle more productive based on feedback from teachers. Highlighting the shortcomings in supervisory systems should not be the final goal:

What is *not* needed is another wailing that conditions in our schools...are so bad that they will overcome the best of our efforts....The challenge for school leaders and for educational researchers is to find and use tools that promote such professional growth and help overcome the bureaucratic influences that inhibit such development. (Goldsberry, 1984, p.11)

A national survey of public school teachers of kindergarten through grade 6 was conducted in 1993-94 in the United States of America by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, the National Center for Education Statistics, Westat, Inc., and CREATE (National Center for Education Statistics, March 1994, cited in Shinkfield and Stufflebeam, 1996). It was the opinion of the greatest percentage of the teachers that evaluations of their performance should consider overall teaching performance, subject matter knowledge, classroom management, instructional techniques, helping students achieve, and unique teaching demands (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1996). Teachers find it disquieting that their evaluations are based on an observed lesson, which is usually only once a year. According to Shinkfield and Stufflebeam (1996):

Clearly, the dominant practice of evaluating teaching mainly or only on the basis of classroom observations is not a sufficient means of evaluating the full range of important teaching responsibilities. (p. 25)

Toch and Rothman (2008) state:

[Classroom observations] are typically of little value—a single, fleeting classroom visit by a principal or other building administrator untrained in evaluation wielding a checklist of classroom conditions and teacher behaviors that often don't even focus directly on the quality of teacher instruction. (p.2)

Kennedy (2005) touches on this subject stating that the evaluator comes in with a checklist of items, some of which do not focus on the teaching/learning process, such as items focusing on the teacher's dress or the safety of the room. She states that in most instances, all they have to do is just mark an item 'satisfactory' or 'unsatisfactory'. Goldhammer states that supervisors generally lack an instructional methodological approach that is sophisticated, unique and that goes beyond superficialities (as cited in Glanz, 2007, p. 120). Danielson and McGreal (2000) state that "Current systems rely heavily on the documentation of a small number of 'observable behaviors,' such as 'writing the learning objectives on the board,' 'smiling at students as you greet them,' and the like" (p. 1). Focusing on these "superficial and readily noted criteria" (Pizzi, 2009, p. 2) is not enough. Teachers want the supervisory cycle to be productive for them. Enacting the steps of the supervisory cycle mechanically to fulfill organizational requirements does not give the teachers a sense of empowerment and the feeling that they are engaged in a worthwhile activity:

It's hard to expect people to make a task a priority when the system they are working in signals that the task is unimportant. That's the case with teacher evaluation. (Toch & Rothman, 2008, p.1)

Schumacher (2004) writes:

In general, even though teachers may understand the process and procedures of the evaluation system and perceive it to be administered fairly, they are less likely to see the value in it if they perceive that their participation simply creates more work for them, causes stress, and doesn't produce rewarding personal outcomes for them. (p. 82)

Instead of limiting themselves to the superficial and readily observable items on the checklist, supervisors should focus on the teaching and learning process and provide

feedback on it. According to Wang and Day (2002), classroom observations without specific feedback about the observed lesson may not be very useful for teachers. One participant teacher told them that her supervisor rarely gave feedback on the lesson beyond an occasional 'Thank you' or 'Nice job'. Even though she herself felt that her lesson went well, she was not sure if what she considered to be the strong points of the lesson were considered to be strong points by the observer. Focused and specific feedback would have helped to reinforce the teaching strategies she used appropriately. Wang and Day (2002) state: "The teachers felt disempowered because their supervisors afforded them no voice in the analysis of their own teaching, and failed to provide specific feedback for them to construct a better understanding of their teaching practices" (p.9). To actively engage the teachers and make the supervisory cycle productive for all the stakeholders, instructional supervisors have to "go beyond the procedural nature of events themselves" (Garman, 1990, p. 204). Smyth (1988) makes a similar point when he states that instead of focusing on the procedural events, we should be more concerned with important issues such as assisting "teachers to achieve forms of teaching that contribute to ways of learning that are more realistic, practical, and just for our students" (p. 145) because "The intellectual capital inherent in clinical supervision is more important than its workflow as articulated into steps, strategies, and procedures" (Sergiovanni, cited in Smyth, 1988, p. 145). Loughran (2014) writes persuasively about how teacher educators can go beyond the superficialities and technicalities:

Teaching teaching is about thoughtfully engaging with practice beyond the technical; it is about using the cauldron of practice to expose pedagogy (especially one's own) to scrutiny. In so doing, collaborative inquiry into the shared teaching and learning experiences of teacher education practices can begin to bring to the surface the sophisticated thinking, decision making, and pedagogical reasoning that underpins pedagogical expertise so that it might not only be recognized but also be purposefully developed. The result being the creation of conditions for the development of informed professionals who better understand, and are able to articulate, the complex and sophisticated business of teaching. (p.275)

The supervisory cycle is a two-way process. The teachers have to be sincere about improving their instructional skills. At the same time, the ways in which supervisors approach the supervisory cycle has a significant impact on how teachers view the

process. Welsh-Treglia (2002) states that there is a strong relationship between positive implementation of evaluation processes by administrators and the attitudes of the teachers toward the feedback received (p.73). According to Zimmerman (2003), "When there is positive rapport, trust, and respect between teacher and principal, the likelihood of improved pedagogy and increased student achievement is almost assured" (cited in Zimmerman & Deckert-Pelton, 2003, p. 29). In two separate studies, Kelly (2006) and Lansman (2006) found that the attitude of the principal toward the teacher evaluation process and the working relationship that principal had with the teachers being observed had a positive impact on how those teachers viewed and implemented the feedback received. According to Lansman (2006, p.156), "the major factor impacting the teacher evaluation process" was the collaborative leadership of the principal. The relationship between a principal and faculty members has a pivotal effect on instructional effectiveness (McGreal, 1983). Davis, Pool and Mits-Cash (2000), who conducted a qualitative field study in a school district in the United States of America about issues related to the implementation of a new teacher assessment system, agree and state that the attitude of the principal toward the evaluation process and his or her expectations of teacher success had a significant impact on the attitude of the teachers towards the process. Milanowski and Heneman III (2001) write that one of the factors related to negative teacher attitudes toward evaluation was a perceived lack of a "collaborative attitude" (p. 207) on the part of their administrators. Bulach, Boothe and Pickett (1998) surveyed 375 teachers in the United States to reveal the behaviors that their principals practiced that they identified as mistakes. They identified 14 categories of mistakes or harmful behaviors of principals. Their main complaints were that principals failed to listen to teachers, had an uncaring attitude and that there was no trust in the teacher-principal working relation (cited in Bulach & Peterson, 1999, p. 1). Listening to teachers, having a caring attitude and trust are "components [that] must be first and foremost in an open...and honest reciprocal relationship between teachers and their principals" (Zimmerman & Deckert-Pelton, 2003, p. 35). Astor (2005), Kelly (2006) and Kimball (2002) (cited in Breedlove, 2011) also found that the supervisors' actions were partly responsible for teacher attitudes toward the supervisory process. This suggests that if supervisors want the teachers to be actively involved in the supervisory

process, they have to ensure that they themselves as supervisors are enthusiastic and conscientious about the process as well. It is their responsibility to try and make the teachers drop the façade of docile acquiescence and become active members of the supervisory cycle. Wang and Day (2002) also make a similar point when they say:

The observer is to assume the responsibility to provide an atmosphere for the teacher to present a representative class. Without such support from the observer, many teachers, particularly novice teachers, will continue to face the challenge of making their observation lesson a truly positive learning experience. (p.12)

Another crucial point that teachers are very conscious about is the supervisor's own academic competence and training. In institutions where teachers do not have the authority to prevent supervisors from visiting their classes and observing their lessons, they can still limit the supervisor's access to their "teacherhood" by creating a façade of interest for the sake of civility. They can go through the motions without any intention of bringing about any changes in their pedagogical practices (Blumberg & Jonas, 1987). The participants interviewed by Blumberg and Jonas (1987) described supervisory behaviors and qualities that made the supervisory experience productive for them and persuading them to grant the supervisor access to their "teacherhood", for example, discussing their teaching philosophies and practices openly and honestly. Their ideas were gathered under forty-one descriptors, which in turn were grouped under eleven themes and three categories. One of the three categories was the supervisor's own competence as an educator. Zimmerman and Deckert-Pelton (2003) conducted a survey of 86 teachers in five northwest Florida counties to examine their perceptions of their principals as effective evaluators. From the respondents' comments, four key domains emerged as pivotal components to a successful professional evaluation process, one of which was that the principal should be "knowledgeable in pedagogy, content, and evaluation" (Zimmerman & Deckert-Pelton, 2003, p.28). Protheroe (2002) argues that principals can understand, critique, and evaluate teachers only if they are knowledgeable and experienced educators. Elliott and Calderhead (1995) state that "in order best to facilitate professional growth, the trainer needs to have clear ideas about teacher professional development" (p.42). Blumberg contends that many teachers see

supervision and evaluation activities as perfunctory at best, and damaging at worst, due in large part to supervisors' lack of instructional and curricular information (cited in Pizzi, 2009). In their study conducted in the state of Missouri in the United States of America, Valentine and Prater (2011) found that the principal's education level is associated with teachers' perception of the principal's effectiveness. Principals with greater levels of formal preparation focusing on the 'principalship' were perceived as more capable leaders. As a principals' educational level increased, so did the teachers' perceptions of their principals' competence (Valentine & Prater, 2011). The importance of observers' educational background and credentials was one of the major themes highlighted by teachers interviewed by Rehman and Al-Bargi (2014) in Saudi Arabia. One of the participants gave a colorful example of how he views the situation of a teacher being debriefed by an observer who is less qualified than him: "It's like a lawyer who is arguing a case in front of a judge who has no knowledge of the law" (Rehman & Al-Bargi, 2014, p. 1565).

In some ways, the purpose of the supervision cycle is defeated when teachers are indirectly forced into adapting their lessons to give 'exhibition' classes. When a supervisor visits a class once or twice a year and is required to rate the teacher on dozens of items on a checklist, the teachers could be forgiven for giving a lesson with the primary objective being not to educate the students but to get a positive rating on the checklist, especially when one considers that sometimes the evaluation reports have ramifications for teachers' contracts. It is one thing for supervisors to conduct observations based on agreed upon evaluation criteria, but we must question the underlying assumption that "all of the steps of the clinical model occur in a single lesson in one class period-everyday!" (Sahakian & Stockton, 1996, p. 50). Supervisors should focus on the different facets of a teachers' job that can affect student learning, the promotion of which is the ultimate goal of supervision. Robles (2007), who interviewed fourteen veteran teachers in his study conducted in Los Angeles County, USA, to examine their perspectives on evaluation and how they want to be evaluated, found that the participants wanted the evaluators to visit their classes more often and conduct scheduled and unscheduled observations. According to the participants, with frequent

scheduled and unscheduled observations, evaluators would get a better picture of what is going on in their classes on an everyday basis. They wanted the evaluators to see them in a 'regular' lesson as opposed to an 'over prepared' lesson. They also wanted their evaluations to be based on multiple data sources such as self-evaluation, student growth data, and alternative methods such as the use of a portfolio/project, peer, parent, and student feedback (Robles, 2007).

Blase and Blase (1999) conducted a qualitative study to determine the characteristics of school principals that positively influence classroom teaching and the effects which those characteristics had on classroom instruction. Two major themes emerged from the data collected from more than 800 teachers from southeastern, midwestern, and northwestern United States: talking with teachers to promote reflection (e.g. making suggestions, giving feedback) and promoting professional growth (e.g. emphasizing the study of teaching and learning, supporting collaboration efforts among educators). The supervisory cycle can be made productive via continuing dialogue between the teachers and supervisors. Supervisors can convince teachers to become actively engaged in the cycle by talking to them at all stages of the supervisory cycle. By engaging in dialogue with the teachers, supervisors can understand and help teachers articulate their beliefs about teaching. It is not enough that supervisors only visit a class once or twice a year with a rubric which is given an infallible status based on the claim that it is research-based. By relying too much on observation instruments, supervisors might be putting too much stock on practices that are given a 'stamp of approval' and afforded the prestige of being declared 'research-based' or 'evidence-based'. These practices should be investigated in more depth because at times

lffy, imprecise inquiry, elevated by its characterization as 'scientific' (and by its association with prestigious institutes and foundations providing funding), gains a form of status hitherto unprecedented. Further, practices supported by this form of inquiry, and treated as though they were fully generalizable, become iconic as 'research based', indicating a level of certainty attached to their implementation that is unwarranted. (Nicholson–Goodman & Garman, 2007, p. 284)

Another point to consider is that not all questions in teaching are empirical; some are related to beliefs.

Teacher educators need to have expertise in sorting out which questions about teacher education are empirical and which are questions of values and beliefs. Questions of value cannot be settled simply by assembling good evidence . . . these questions can be shaped, reformulated, or understood more profoundly on the basis of evidence, but evidence must always be interpreted. (Cochran-Smith, 2005, pp. 224-225)

Another reason to engage teachers in dialogue is to involve them in discussions about what an organization considers to be effective teaching practice which it requires the teachers to adopt. Observation instruments are developed around those practices. Observation instruments themselves are also not value free, but reflect the pedagogical philosophy of the organizations that use them. Caughlan and Jiang (2014) compared the valued knowledge, activities, and participant roles reflected in three observation instruments used in the USA as performance assessments in teacher education programs:

- (1) The Christopher Newport University Student Teacher Observation Form (CNU)
- (2) The Michigan State University Field Instructor Feedback Form (FIFF)
- (3) The Performance Assessment for California Teachers and Preservice Teachers (PACT)

Their study used the framework of critical discourse analysis to examine these three instruments to note the features that imply what is valued as quality teaching practice. They argue that the observational instruments which were used as tools to assess the progress and the exit performances of teacher candidates are not neutral. Instead, they reflect the values of the programs that use them through particular (and sometimes contradictory) discourses of teacher learning and student learning (Caughlan & Jiang, 2014). In common with the administrators of these programs, teachers should be given a chance to provide input in the development of observation instruments. Murdoch (2000) states that to empower and motivate teachers, "An effective system will give [them] an active role in initiating and contributing to the instruments and procedures that

are used to evaluate their performance” (p.55). Bailey (2006) notes that, although involving teachers in the process of designing evaluation criteria is time-consuming, it can give teachers a sense of ownership and could also promote “buy-in” among them (p.113).

Teachers should also be afforded opportunities to learn, try new ideas and solicit help from their peers and supervisors without fear of failing or being considered incompetent. According to Wang and Day (2002), the participant teachers in their study reported that “they kept problems and concerns to themselves, and when they needed help and support, they hesitated to turn to someone who wielded the power to evaluate them” (p.16). This is an inevitable corollary of “faultfinding supervision” (Glanz, 2007, p. 115). Teachers will be nervous about soliciting help from their supervisors or departing from an elaborately planned and rehearsed lesson that is being observed when they know that everything that could be construed as “incorrect” will be part of the evaluation report that will become part of their personnel file. Hazi and Arredondo Rucinski (2009) argue that “administrators and teachers must hold blame-free conversations about the curriculum, student learning, and what quality teaching mean to them” (p.38). When the aim is to come up with better ways to impart knowledge, teachers have the “right to be wrong... If we lose this right, we can also lose the courage to try new ideas, to explore more than one alternative, and to explore freely” (Gebhard, 1990, p.158). Kennedy (2005) also discusses how teachers improve their teaching practice. She found that when teachers were dissatisfied with some detail of their teaching (lesson momentum, efficiency, accommodating students), they made minor adjustments in routine over time. Hazi and Arredondo Rucinski (2009) state:

Experience tends to influence teacher change, more than new knowledge gained from institutional sources (e.g., tests, curriculum standards, textbooks, building requirements) or knowledge vendors (e.g., professional development, university courses, professional associations). (Hazi & Arredondo Rucinski, 2009, p.33)

Teachers would be reluctant to try new ideas and strategies if supervisors create an atmosphere of anxiety through 'faultfinding' supervision and thereby inadvertently ignore a potentially very valuable source of professional development.

Wang & Day (2002) list four key teacher needs that they say must be fulfilled to make a supervisory system worthwhile:

- 1) **Respect**--to be treated as professionals
- 2) **Safety**--to be provided with opportunities to learn and grow in a non-threatening environment
- 3) **Trust**--to be encouraged to assume the responsibility of working towards accomplishing their own instructional and pedagogical goals
- 4) **Collaboration**--to be provided with support and to experience camaraderie.

They further claim that "These needs... are considered key ingredients of effective teacher development, and hence need to be at the core of any teacher observation model. Without these ingredients, teacher observation can simply become a ritual" (p.17).

Other researchers have also listed ways of making the supervisory cycle more productive for teachers: voluntary, continuous professional development, in teams, and embedded within the school day (e.g., Arredondo Rucinski & Hazi, 2008); the use of multiple observations by a trained team of multiple observers, using clear, comprehensive standards (Danielson, 2001; Toch, 2008; Toch & Rothman, 2008); instructional coaching, mini observations and well-constructed rubrics (Marshall, 2005, 2008).

In this section, I have reviewed teachers' perceptions about how they wanted to be supervised and what they expected from the supervisory cycle. Before I conclude this section, I must highlight one point for the sake of fairness. It is true that the onus should be on supervisors to bring about changes in the supervisory system to make it

worthwhile for the teachers. However, there needs to be an awareness that not all demands from all teachers can be considered to be important or fair. When reading about what teachers want from supervisors, the question that needs to be asked is: 'Are these needs real and pressing and must be met, or are the teachers just engaging in a bout of academic whining?' Pizzi (2009) states that teachers' attitudes concerning their professional remediation can prove a formidable barrier to effective evaluation. According to Waitroob (1995), the teachers who deny their own need for remediation and professional development are often those who need it the most. She further contends that "inevitably, the non-remediable teacher's denial that he or she has a problem is accompanied by an attack on the credibility, the competence, or integrity of the administrator" (cited in Pizzi, 2009, p.52). Hoerr (1998) states that while outstanding teachers tend to be self-evaluating regardless of what system of evaluation is in place, marginal or incompetent teachers tend to criticize others. The point here is that there has to be a sincere endeavor for improvement from teachers, since without this no amount of changes in the process of supervision can compensate for the teachers' unwillingness to be a partner in the supervisory cycle.

2.6 Summary

I started the literature review with an overview of teacher supervision. I discussed the development of the field of supervision starting from the publication of the first book on supervision in 1875. From there I followed the history of teacher supervision and how it shifted its focus from faultfinding and quality assurance to more collegial models with a focus on instructional improvement. This was followed with a brief discussion of the emergence of clinical supervision and different authors' varying interpretations of Cogan and Goldhammer's original models. After that was a list of criteria that supervisors are expected to work on in different models of supervision, followed by an overview of supervisory systems based on different streams. The first section concluded with an overview of professional life cycles of teachers. The second section viewed teacher supervision critically, expounding on the difficulty of coming to an agreement about the way teacher supervision should be carried out, and discussed power relations, injustice, oppression, and the use of management models from other fields. The third section

reviewed some of the critiques of teacher supervision that have been made, and also noted that despite all the imperfections in supervisory models, there is still a need to supervise teachers to secure students' right to a quality education. The fourth and last section reviewed how teachers wanted to be supervised.

As stated at the beginning of the literature review, the overarching aim was to examine the basic tenets of teacher supervision, analyze them critically and then to analyze the critical views. All of this then led us to the discussion of teachers' perceptions about how they want to be supervised, with a view to critiquing existing practices in light of teacher experience, viewpoints, and professional aspirations, which is the focus of this study. As was evident from the studies that were reviewed, teachers expressed different views about their preferences and expectations in different studies. This shows that transplanting a model or implementing the findings of a study conducted in a different context might not necessarily address the needs of teachers in another context. There is a need for more studies in different contexts and settings so that educators can adapt and adopt what is more suitable for their particular context (ref. 1.4). This study aims to contribute to the body of literature in this regard.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.1 Overview

In this chapter, I will provide an overview of the philosophical and methodological issues that have guided this research. I will start by outlining the reasons for approaching the study with an interpretive outlook. This will be followed by a detailed description of the research design, beginning with a discussion of case studies and why I chose to do a case study. Then, issues related to sampling, the participants, data collection and analysis will be discussed in detail. The ethical considerations that guided the research will follow. Finally, the criteria and specific strategies for ensuring trustworthiness will be described, with a discussion of the limitations of the research design concluding the chapter.

3.2 Choice of Research Paradigm

The aim of the study was to explore teachers' perceptions about how they want to be supervised; therefore, I chose to approach my inquiry with an interpretive outlook. The key influences cited in relation to this paradigm include German philosophers Immanuel Kant, G. W. Hegel, Max Weber, Wilhelm Dilthey and Hans Georg Gadamer; American sociologists George Herbert Mead, Ervin Goffman, Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss (Grix, 2004). It must be noted here that adopting an "interpretive" approach could mean a variety of different things. According to Grix (2004), "Interpretivism is an umbrella term which covers just as many variations of approach to social enquiry as positivism" (p.82). When writing about the evaluation and analysis of different versions of interpretivism, Howe (2003) states that the analysis would require him to negotiate "some pretty treacherous conceptual ground" (p.65). He writes that the reason for this is that different terms used in discussions about different versions of interpretivism—such as interpretivism, postmodernism, constructivism and deconstructionism—hold different meanings and are used in different ways by different people. Furthermore, he states that they are even quite explicitly contested. Crotty (1998), for example, draws a distinction between the terms *constructivism* and *constructionism*. My intention is not to

elaborate and analyze the conceptual ambiguity and controversy engendered by the use of these terms. The subtle variations of meaning in the way these terms are used by different authors are not within the scope of this study. I will only discuss the fundamental tenets of interpretivism and why I chose to approach my study with an interpretive outlook.

Not all methods are equally appropriate for all research topics. Researchers have to take into account different elements of a research project, such as the researcher's competence and interest, the scope of the research and available resources to guide them in their choice of methodology (Bennett & Elman 2006; Poteete & Ostrom 2008). These factors were crucial in helping me decide what approach to adopt. I considered an interpretive outlook to be the most appropriate as it explores people's perceptions, experiences, and what meaning they ascribe to the realities they interact with in their daily lives. As Marshall and Rossman (1999) state: "For a study focusing on individual lived experiences, the researcher could argue that one cannot understand human actions without understanding the meaning that participants attribute to these actions, their thoughts, feelings, beliefs, values, and assumptive worlds" (p. 57).

Interpretivism rejects the notion that a single, verifiable reality exists independent of our senses. External reality cannot be directly accessible to observers without being contaminated by their worldviews, concepts and backgrounds. According to Neimeyer, humans "do not have direct access to a singular, stable, and fully knowable external reality. All of our understandings are contextually embedded, interpersonally forged, and necessarily limited" (cited in Patton, 2001, p. 96). Crotty (1998) uses the example of how we conceive a tree to make the same point. According to him, the "commonsense" view commends to us is that the tree standing before us is a tree and it has all the meaning we ascribe to a tree. It would be a tree whether anyone knew of its existence or not. Human beings have constructed it as a tree, given it the name, and attributed to it the associations we make with trees. Those associations differ significantly even within the same overall culture. "Tree" is likely to bear quite different connotations in a logging town, an artists' settlement and a treeless slum (Crotty, 1998, p.43).

Gall, Gall & Borg (2003) use the example of a gold star that a teacher awards to a student's paper. The researcher might consider it as an instance of teacher feedback to students. For the teacher, it might be a symbolic message to the student that he has written a good paper relative to other papers he has written. The student might view the gold star as a symbolic message that he has written a better paper than most other papers in the class. Still another student might view the gold star as an indication that the teacher was too busy to provide written feedback and instead used the gold star as a substitute. Thus, the gold star constitutes different social realities and not a fixed, independent reality (Gall et al., 2003). The fundamental tenet of interpretivism is that reality is socially constructed; therefore, the focus of research should be on an understanding of this construction and the multiple perspectives it implies (Richards, 2003). This outlook holds the position that knowledge and truth are created rather than discovered and that reality is pluralistic. As Flick states, "Perception is seen not as a passive-receptive process of representation but as an active constructive process of production" (2004, p.89). Interpretivists study the multiple realities constructed by people and the implications that these constructions have for their lives and interactions with others. Interpretivists tend toward the antifoundational. The term *antifoundational* is used to denote a refusal to adopt any "permanent, unvarying... standards by which truth can be universally known" (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p.204). Truth—and any agreement regarding what is considered valid knowledge—arises from the relationship between members of some stakeholding community (Lincoln, 1995). Agreements about truth may be the subject of community dialogue regarding what will be accepted as truth (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). According to Patton (2001), "the world of human perception is not real in an absolute sense, as the sun is real, but is "made up" and shaped by cultural and linguistic constructs" (p.96). Interpretivists seek to understand not the essence of a real world but the richness of a world that is socially determined. People are individuals with biographies, acting in particular circumstances at particular times and ascribing meanings to events and interactions. An understanding of this develops interpretively as research proceeds; therefore, the relationship between the researcher and the phenomena under investigation is of real importance. Schwandt (1994) states

that interpretivists seek to understand the complex world of lived experience from the view of those who live it. In his words:

The world of lived reality and situation-specific meanings that constitute the general object of investigation is thought to be constructed by social actors. That is, particular actors, in particular places, at particular times, fashion meaning out of events and phenomena through prolonged, complex processes of social interaction involving history, language, and action. (Schwandt, 1994, p. 118)

The goal of interpretive research is not to discover universal, context and value free knowledge and truth but to try to understand the interpretations of individuals about the social phenomena they interact with, because it requires that social phenomena be understood “through the eyes of the participants rather than the researcher” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 21). Similarly, Creswell argues that the goal of interpretive research is to rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of the situation. These subjective meanings are often negotiated socially and historically. They are not simply imprinted on individuals but are formed through interaction with others and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals’ lives. Instead of starting with a theory (as in postpositivism), inquirers generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meaning (Creswell, 2007). In interpretive research, the researchers aim to understand values, beliefs and meanings of social phenomena to gain an empathetic understanding of human social activities and experiences (Smith & Heshusius, 1986). The goal in interpretive inquiry is to explore individuals’ perceptions and develop insights about the phenomena under investigation.

Although I considered it to be the most appropriate approach to adopt for my inquiry, I was aware that the interpretive paradigm is not without its problems. The interpretive paradigm has been criticized for, among other things, being ‘soft’, incapable of yielding theories that could be generalized to larger populations and the involvement of the researcher with participants which leads to lack of objectivity (Grix, 2004). Contextual factors and subjectivity make generalizability a problem in interpretive research. Since participants may not have any control over how researchers interpret the data, interpretivists often produce “theorized accounts that represent [the researchers’]

sociological understandings of the social worlds of children and adults” (Danby & Farrell, 2004, p. 41). Furthermore, despite all the precautions the researcher might take, participants’ privacy and autonomy could still be compromised. Researchers’ attempts at providing thick description might lead to the unintended discovery of secrets, lies and oppressive relationships (Howe & Moses, 1999).

Despite these problems, I still chose to work with an interpretive outlook. It is hard to understand real-world phenomena without taking into account the contextual factors that bound them, and because of my choice of an interpretive approach, I was able to develop an understanding of the situation, events and participants’ viewpoints which enabled me to become involved in the research process. Researchers have to be involved in communication with the participants to grasp a shared meaning and reach a common understanding in order to help address the shortcomings of qualitative research (White, 2002). This makes subjectivity an important part of interpretivism. Although researchers always try to reduce subjectivity and apply academic rigor to any study, it is difficult to claim complete objectivity. As Creswell (2007) states, researchers’ interpretations are shaped by their own backgrounds and they position themselves to acknowledge how these interpretations flow from their own personal, cultural and historical experiences.

According to Grix (2004), “Researchers are inextricably part of the social reality being researched, i.e., they are not ‘detached’ from the subject they are studying.” (p.83). Guba and Lincoln (1989) write that the notion of an objective "fact" has no meaning "except within some value framework". Therefore, “there cannot be an ‘objective’ assessment of any proposition” (p.44). They further state that “‘Truth’ is a matter of consensus among informed and sophisticated constructors, not of correspondence with an objective reality” (Guba & Lincoln 1989, p.44). Similarly, Patton (2001) states that social construction, or constructivist philosophy, is built on the thesis of ontological relativity. This thesis holds that all tenable statements about existence depend on a worldview, and no worldview is uniquely determined by empirical data about the world (Patton, 2001, pp.96-97).

Rubin and Rubin (2011) have noted that the researcher's own outlook filters the kind of questions that are asked and the kind of questions received during interviews. As Merriam (1998) states, "our analysis and interpretation – our study's findings –will reflect the constructs, concepts, language, models, and theories that structured the study in the first place" (p. 48). Blaikie (2000) writes:

Social researchers can only collect data from some point of view, by making 'observations' through spectacles with lenses that are shaped and colored by the researcher's language, culture, discipline-based knowledge, past experiences (professional and lay), and experiences that follow from these... Therefore, there will always be a gap of some kind between the data that are collected and the reality that they are supposed to represent. (p. 120)

Nevertheless, researchers can reduce the effect of their subjectivity by answering questions about the nature of the project as honestly and openly as possible without generating bias in the study (Patton, 2002). In addition, interpretive research is not "soft... it demands rigour, precision, systematicity, and careful attention to detail" (Richards, 2003, p.6). One can produce academically robust research working within the interpretive paradigm. As White states, "the real basis for 'rigor' is the proper application of techniques. Badly or misleadingly applied, both quantitative and qualitative techniques give bad or misleading conclusions" (2002, p. 512).

I chose not to approach my study with a positivist outlook, even though it does have its benefits. According to Grix (2004), the attractiveness of the natural sciences approach is understandable as it seeks precision, exactitude and power of prediction; human sciences can be messy, people unpredictable and factors leading to events hard to unravel. Positivism attempts to overcome this messiness by seeking rules and laws which help to arrive at a better understanding of the world (Grix, 2004).

The reason for not adopting a positivist stance was that my aim was to explore how the different participants viewed and constructed reality for themselves. Positivism assumes that reality exists independently of humans, is not mediated by our senses and is

governed by immutable laws. Hutchinson (1988) states that “Positivists view the world as being ‘out there’, and available for study in a more or less static form” (cited in Gall et al., 2003, p. 14). Positivists believe that there are laws governing social phenomena, and by applying scientific methods, it is possible to formulate these laws and present them through factual statements. This positivist assumption has been deemed “naïve” by Richards (2003, p.37). The complexity of laws governing individuals, their idiosyncrasies, their relationship with each other, with institutions and with society are in stark contrast with the order and regularity one finds in the natural world. Scientific methods, though appropriate for studying natural phenomena, fall short when they are used to study individuals and social phenomena (Gage, 2007; Gall et al., 2003; Grix, 2004; Richards, 2003). According to Grix (2004), “Interpretivists believe there is a clear distinction to be made between the natural and the social world, and therefore we need a methodology and methods of gathering data that are more in tune with the subjects we are studying” (p.82). Guba and Lincoln (1994) have also written about potential problems with the use of the “received” view of science. The “received” view focuses on efforts to verify or falsify a priori hypotheses, often stated as mathematical (quantitative) propositions or propositions that can be converted into precise mathematical formulae showing functional relationships. One of the problems with these precise quantitative approaches is that by focusing on selected subsets of variables, they “strip” from consideration, through appropriate controls or randomization, other variables that exist in the context that may, if allowed to exert their effects without any controls, greatly affect findings. In addition, even though such exclusionary designs increase the theoretical rigor of a study, they detract from its relevance, applicability or generalizability, because the outcomes of such studies can be properly applied only in other similarly truncated or contextually stripped situations (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Another problem with the “received” view is that of exclusion of meaning and purpose. Unlike physical objects, human behavior cannot be understood without reference to the meanings and purposes human actors attach to their activities.

3.3 Research Design

3.3.1 Case Study

Selection of a research design is determined by how well it allows full investigation of a particular research question (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). A researcher should adopt a research design that is best suited for investigating the research tasks at hand, because every method has particular advantages in answering certain kind of research questions (George & Bennett, 2006). With this in mind, I chose to do a case study. Case study is “the in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon” (Gall et al., 2003, p. 446). According to Stake (1995), “Case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances” (p. xi). As stated by Patton (2002), cases are units of analysis. They can be “individuals, groups, neighborhoods, programs, organizations, cultures, regions, nation-states.... critical incidents, stages in the life of a person or program, or anything that can be defined as a “specific, unique, bounded system” (Stake 2000:436)” (Patton, 2001, p. 447). The principle of ‘boundedness’ is considered to be central by leading case study theorists. According to Hood (2009, p.68), “A bounded system is composed of an individual (or institution) and a site, including the contextual features that inform the relationship between the two”. Hood describes case studies as “empirical investigations of contemporary phenomena within real-life contexts. They comprise a bounded system, including an individual or entity and the settings in which they act” (2009, p.87). According to Hancock and Algozzine (2006), in case study research “the phenomenon being researched is studied in its natural context, bounded by space and time” (p.15). They further state that context is important in case study research because it allows researchers to conduct intensive investigations of individuals, groups, programs, situations or any other phenomena of interest (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). Cohen et al. (2007) have also touched upon the significance of contextual factors in case studies. They state that “Contexts are unique and dynamic, hence case studies investigate and report the complex dynamic and unfolding interactions of events, human relationships and other factors in a unique instance” (Cohen et al., p.253).

The case study method is used when the object is to investigate real-life phenomena in depth in their context because the contextual factors are relevant to the phenomena under investigation (Yin, 2008). It is different from other research designs. For example, in an experimental design, the researcher aims to control or separate contextual factors that can affect the phenomena under investigation. A historical study can take into account contextual factors, but it does not deal with real-life, contemporary events. Similarly, the ability of surveys to investigate contextual factors and how they affect the phenomena under investigation is very limited (Yin, 2008).

I chose to do a case study because it allowed me to design my study as I wanted to do, to give the participants a voice and let their beliefs take centre stage. This is the “primary emphasis” in case studies (Scott & Morrison, 2006, p. 17). Similarly, Hancock & Algozzine (2006, p. 16) state that “[A case study] employs quotes of key participants, anecdotes, prose composed from interviews, and other literary techniques to create mental images that bring to life the complexity of the many variables inherent in the phenomenon being studied”.

Experimental studies aim to establish causality, for example, whether a particular intervention has any effect on student learning, with the post-intervention scores enabling the researcher to confirm or reject the hypothesis. However, the causes for many social and behavioral topics - such as in my area of investigation - can be very complex and may be the result of several different factors. Attempting to determine causality for them is likely to be beyond the scope of an experiment or other research designs. A distinguishing feature of case studies is that human systems are not viewed as a loose connection of traits. Instead, they have a wholeness or integrity to them which necessitates in-depth investigation (Sturman, cited in Cohen et al., 2007). As stated very cogently by Richards, “In a field as broad geographically, socially and intellectually as TESOL, where generalisations are likely to be blandly true, suffocatingly narrow or irresponsibly cavalier, the power of the particular case to resonate across cultures should not be underestimated” (2003, p. 21). Cohen et al. also state that “Case

studies can penetrate situations in ways that are not always susceptible to numerical analysis” (2007, p. 253).

3.3.2 Sampling

For the purpose of this study, eleven male foundation year (ref. 1.5.2 for details about the foundation year program) teachers in the men’s section of a university in Saudi Arabia were chosen. The participants of the study were selected using a purposeful sampling strategy. The intention was to collect detailed data via interviews; therefore, information-rich cases that were expected to yield data of central importance for the purpose of the study were chosen (Patton, 2002, p. 230). Morse’s criteria (as cited in Flick, 2009) of a “good informant” were used as a guide to select information-rich cases (p.123). These criteria require that participants should

- (a) have the necessary knowledge and experience of the issue or object at their disposal for answering the questions in the interview;
- (b) have the capability to reflect and articulate
- (c) be ready to participate in the study;
- (d) have time to participate in the study.

Initially, I compiled a list of twenty teachers who could qualify as ‘good informants’ and were capable of providing data that could be of central importance for the purpose of the study. This pool of good informants was larger than the number of participants required for this study; therefore, I selected eleven participants from within the pool of the twenty ‘good informants’. I was able to make judgements regarding who could provide data that would be of central importance for the study because, in my capacity first as an instructional leader and then as an academic coordinator, I have had the opportunity to work with and evaluate many different facets of teachers’ performances. By drawing on my experiences working with the teachers, I selected eleven teachers who I believed had the required level of abstraction and the ability to reflect and articulate complex ideas.

Being qualitative in nature, there are no set rules for the number of participants and it is up to the researcher to determine the size of the sample after taking into consideration various factors such as time, resources, purpose and depth of the study etc. (Gall et al., 2003; Patton, 2002; Flick, 2009). Having taken all of these factors into consideration, I decided to limit the sample size to eleven participants.

3.3.3 The Participants

Participant	Age	Teaching Experience	Nationality	Qualifications (Degree – Training)	Country of Education
Teacher 1	60	30	South African	BA	South Africa
Teacher 2	60	32 years	South African	M Phil (Modern Foreign Languages); Dip HE; Cert TEYL	South Africa, UK
Teacher 3	36	14	Egyptian	BA in English – TEFL Certificate Course	Egypt
Teacher 4	30	6 years	Pakistani	MA English	Pakistan
Teacher 5	33	8-9 years	Indian	MA. English, CELTA (TESOL certificate course)	India, USA & UK
Teacher 6	37	10 years	Saudi	BA English	Saudi Arabia
Teacher 7	41	11 years	Canadian	MA Educational Psychology – CELTA	Canada
Teacher 8	52	27years	Pakistani	MA English	Pakistan
Teacher 9	52	15 years	American	MA English Language & Linguistics – CELTA	Morocco & France
Teacher 10	37	10 years	Egyptian	MA Applied Linguistics & TESOL - CELTA	Egypt & UK
Teacher 11	28	5 years	British	MA in Classics - CELTA	United Kingdom

Table 2: Demographic information on the participants of the study

3.3.4 Data collection instrument

3.3.4.1 Interviews

Data were collected via interviews because I considered them to be the most appropriate data collection tools for the purpose of my study. Cohen et al. state:

Interviews enable participants—be they interviewers or interviewees—to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live, and to express how they regard situations from their own point of view. In these senses the interview is not simply concerned with collecting data about life: it is part of life itself, its human embeddedness is inescapable. (2007, p.349)

Other authors have also commented that an interview is an active and collaborative effort in which two or more people create meaning (Atkinson & Silverman, 1997; Fontana, 2002; Fontana & Prokos, 2007; Holstein & Gubrium, 1995; Scheurich, 1995). The qualitative interview is “a uniquely sensitive and powerful method for capturing the lived experiences and lived meanings of the subjects’ everyday world” (Kvale, 2007, p. 11), making it an ideal tool for the purpose of my research.

Some authors have written about the problems in using interviews for data collection. Bassey (1999) states that participants might find themselves having to construct an ‘ad hoc’ position rather than express deeply held convictions when they are faced with questions they have not thought about in advance. According to Walford (2001), research aims at uncovering what people do, not just what they say they do, and this cannot always be the guaranteed upshot of interviews as a preferred method of data collection. Atkinson and Silverman (1997) have also written on this subject, stating that the final narrative produced by the interviewer and interviewee is a pastiche put together by fiat. Scheurich (1995) highlights the effect the interviewer has on the interview by observing that the interviewer is a person who is historically and contextually located, with unavoidable conscious and unconscious motives, desires, feelings and biases.

Despite these potential problems, I decided to use interviews because my purpose was to seek in-depth understandings about the experiences of the participants. I felt that interviews would be best suited to seek in-depth understanding of the experiences of

the participants of my study because, “By using interviews, the researcher can reach areas of reality that would otherwise remain inaccessible, such as people’s subjective experiences and attitudes” (Peräkylä & Ruusuvuori, 2011, p. 529). The purpose of qualitative interviewing is to capture how those being interviewed view their world, to learn their terminology and judgments, and to capture the complexities of their individual perceptions and experiences. Closed instruments such as standardized questionnaires or tests used in quantitative studies force respondents to fit their knowledge, experiences, and feelings into the researcher's categories. “The fundamental principle of qualitative interviewing is to provide a framework within which respondents can express their own understandings in their own terms” (Patton, 2002, p.348).

3.3.4.2 Data Collection Instrument Design

An interview guide was developed for conducting semi-structured interviews. This approach was adopted for this study because it allows sufficient freedom to pursue different lines of inquiry without straying off the topic. It was preferred to an informal conversational interview and a structured open ended interview because the former might produce large amounts of data that are difficult to analyze (Patton, 2002, p. 343) and the latter because, not knowing the kind of data that the interviews would yield, a structured open ended interview could end up becoming a straitjacket that could make it difficult to explore important topics as they arise during the interview. As argued by Richards (2003), “the interviewer must be responsive to nuance and opportunity as the interview progresses” (pp. 64-65). Allowing freedom to pursue topics is crucial, because what the researcher believes to be important is not always important for the participants and vice versa. Interview guides can be developed in more or less detail based on the researcher’s discretion; it depends on their ability to determine important issues in advance and the extent to which it is important to ask questions in the same order to all participants (Patton, 2002). As stated above, a semi-structured interview affords the freedom to pursue lines of inquiry within the relevant topics which were not considered when the interview guide was created. The intention in this study was not to cover every line of inquiry with the same amount of detail; rather, the topics acted as starters to help gather rich data. The approach was not to “[drag] an unwilling victim through every nook

and cranny of an interrogatory masterplan but by listening to what they have to say and how they say it” (Richards, 2003, p. 65).

The questions in the interview guide (appendix 2) were designed to develop a deep understanding of teachers’ ideas regarding supervisory activities they wanted to be part of, with the research questions used as a guiding set of principles for the design of the interview guide. The first three questions were designed to be “warm-up questions” (Richards, 2003, p.70) to give the participant an opportunity to speak at length about his education and career, thereby putting him at ease. These are followed by a general question about his experience with different supervision systems. The next two questions are crucial, because they are aimed at understanding teachers’ positive and negative experiences with supervisory activities and the specific reasons that made the experiences positive or negative. Questions seven through twelve investigate the teachers’ views on the effectiveness of the current supervisory system, with a special emphasis on how it helps or fails to help them and the changes they would suggest in it. Questions thirteen and fourteen asks them about the system they would develop if they were put in charge and how it would be helpful. It is important to note that the purpose of these two questions was not to get the teachers to develop a supervisory system; rather, the aim was to get a deeper understanding of the teachers’ priorities by allowing them to articulate the features of the supervisory system they would design. The interview is then brought to a close by giving the teacher an opportunity to allow him to add anything should he choose to do so.

3.3.5 Procedures

3.3.5.1 Piloting

Initially, the interview guide consisted of twenty-one questions. I piloted the interview guide by conducting an interview with a teacher, transcribing the data and doing a summary analysis of the transcribed data. I wanted to know not only how the interview would proceed in terms of allowing for sufficient probing of specific topics, but also the kind of data that it would yield and how the data would respond to analysis. After piloting, it was felt that most of the questions were appropriate and allowed the

researcher to gather relevant data that would help in the answering of the research questions. However, the questions were reduced from twenty-one to fifteen because some of the questions were redundant and asked the teacher the same thing in slightly different ways, which did not lead to the uncovering of new information. Six redundant questions were deleted, which made the interview guide more focused.

3.3.5.2 Interview Data Collection

The participants were contacted in person and requested to take part in the study. Once they agreed, the purpose and details of the study were explained and their consent was obtained in writing. They were then requested to name a time and place for the interview. All of the interviews were conducted either in the participant's office or in my office. The interviews were recorded with a smartphone and transferred to my personal password-protector laptop computer, whereupon it was deleted from the smartphone.

3.3.6 Transcription

Drew's simple transcription conventions (as cited in Flick, 2009) were used because the phenomena being investigated in the current study were the ideas held by the teachers, not the words they used to convey these ideas. Therefore, there was no need to spend too much time on detailed and full transcription. It is the researcher's responsibility to decide "whether, to what extent, and how a transcription is useful for the research" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 367) and a simple transcription system involving converting an audio file into text allowed me to look closely at the ideas represented by the words. See appendix 5 for a transcribed example.

3.3.7 Document Analysis

In addition to interview data collected from the participants, important documents used in the supervisory cycle were analyzed. Document analysis is a systematic procedure in which documents are examined and interpreted to elicit meaning. The procedure "entails finding, selecting, appraising (making sense of), and synthesizing data contained in documents" (Bowen, 2009, p. 28). Document analysis is particularly useful in case studies (Bowen, 2009). Documents can be useful for researchers in uncovering

meaning and discovering insights relevant to the research problem (Merriam, 1988). They can complement and add to the knowledge base developed from the analysis of interview data. Document analysis is not about ‘cherry picking’ a selection of quotes and excerpts that illustrate a researcher’s point. It is a matter of processing, evaluating and analyzing documents to gain empirical knowledge and develop a deeper understanding of the phenomena under investigation. In a study such as this dissertation, the importance of document analysis cannot be overstated. Most of the data in the form of interview transcripts are based on what teachers have to say regarding supervisory practices and how they are implemented. Therefore, documents used in the supervisory cycle are a crucial element in striking a balance between what the teachers have to say regarding organizational practices and what the organization has itself outlined in their documentation.

Below is the list of documents that were analyzed for the purpose of this study:

- 1) Faculty Handbook: Chapter on ‘Faculty Evaluation and Classroom Observation’
- 2) Classroom Observation Evaluation Criteria
- 3) Formal Observation Evaluation Report
- 4) Evaluation Criteria for Development
- 5) Professional Development Report
- 6) Development Score Report

The six documents fall into two categories in terms of their origin:

1) The **Faculty Handbook, Classroom Observation Evaluation Criteria** and **Formal Observation Evaluation Report** have been in use for over six years. These documents have undergone some modifications which were made based on teacher feedback.

2) The **Evaluation Criteria for Development, Professional Development Report** and **Development Score Report** were designed less than three years ago when there was

a change in personnel. A new management unit was created that was responsible only for professional development and classroom evaluation. As part of the changes they made in the supervisory system, there was an initiative to focus more on professional development. These three instruments were designed at that time.

All of these documents were 'team-authored' by whoever was in the supervision unit at the time they were drafted, and the target audience/population is the entire faculty in the English Language Institutes of all the campuses of the university.

The aim of this study was to investigate teachers' perspectives on how they want to be supervised, with a view to critiquing existing practices in light of teacher experience, perspective, and professional aspirations. Therefore, it was important to look closely at the existing practices as laid out by the organization itself and not just rely on how teachers perceive them. The teachers are in an excellent position to articulate their perceptions about organizational practices and the supervisory cycle because they have to live through them. As referenced earlier, the core elements of teacher education programs are not to be found in public statements of intention and documentation, but through examinations of the experiences themselves (Zeichner & Tabachnick, cited in Zeichner & Liston, 1985). However, limiting investigations regarding organizational practices to teacher perceptions only would not give a complete picture of the reality on the ground. It is important to consider both perspectives, with the teachers telling one side, and organizational documents telling the other. This can help arrive at a more balanced understanding of reality, because when an idea is expressed by a participant, the origin could be in either perception, implementation, or policy. If a teacher expresses an opinion about a practice, it is possible that:

a) the practice is neither described in policy documents nor enacted by anyone; instead, it only exists in a teacher's perception. As a hypothetical example, perhaps a teacher is of the opinion that the administration assigns more work to teachers who are from a particular country or region. This can be easily disproved if the administration produces

the 'extra duties' log which shows that all teachers have been assigned the same number of hours in extra duties;

b) the practice is not in policy documents, but in the course of following organizational policy, it only becomes common practice because some people think it is necessary or convenient. For example, in the setting of the current study, the procedure for conducting a post-observation conference has been standardized for the last three years, but before that, there was no policy and there were no guidelines on how to conduct a post-observation conference. As a result, different observers had their own way of conducting post-observation conferences which they followed methodically. One observer used a four-step procedure for every post-observation conference; another one would simply give the teacher a list of mistakes he had made in the lesson. In situations like these, there is likely to be disagreement and dispute regarding whether a practice is enacted or not or how it is enacted because it has not been put down on paper and it will be different on a case by case basis;

c) the practice is described in the policy documents and implemented by the faculty members concerned. It is a requirement from the administration, has its imprimatur, and is officially published. For example, in the setting of the current study, all teachers have to be observed at least twice a year, with the first observation being informal and the second one formal. In cases like these, there can be no dispute about the practice because it is set out in writing. There could be disagreement about the benefit and legitimacy of that policy, but nobody can deny that it exists.

To ensure that I arrived at a better understanding of the organizational stance regarding professional development, I decided to analyze all the documents used in the supervisory cycle. By documenting in detail all the requirements of the organization regarding classroom observations, rating scales, internal and external professional development activities, these documents provide us with a broader and deeper understanding of organizational practices when combined with the teachers' perspectives regarding these practices.

3.3.8 Data Analysis

Deciding what to do with the data after data collection “is one of ‘the most paralyzing moments’ in qualitative analyses (Jennings, 2007; Sandelowski, 1995)” (Dierckx de Casterlé, Gastmans, Bryon, & Denier, 2012, p. 3). What makes it even more challenging is that there are no set rules for data analysis. There is a lack of clear guidance for using particular analytic methods for analyzing qualitative data (Hunter, Lusardi, Zucker, Jacelon, & Chandler, 2002; McCance, McKenna, & Boore, 2001). A novice researcher can gain little solace when it is said about qualitative data analysis that “There is no one right way to work with the data, and it is a process best learnt by doing” (Froggatt, 2001, p. 434). Saldaña also states that “Coding is...an exploratory problem-solving technique without specific formulas to follow” (2009, p. 8). According to Creswell (2011), “There is no single, accepted approach to analyzing qualitative data, although several guidelines exist for this process...It is an eclectic process” (pg. 238).

According to Patton:

The challenge of qualitative analysis lies in making sense of massive amounts of data. This involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting trivia from significance, identifying significant patterns, and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal. (2002, p.432)

The process of data analysis requires astute questioning, a relentless search for answers, active observation, and accurate recall (Morse, 1994). The process entails piecing together data, making the invisible obvious, recognizing the significant from the insignificant, linking seemingly unrelated facts logically, and attributing consequences to antecedents. “It is a process of conjecture and verification, of correction and modification, of suggestion and defense. It is a creative process of organizing data so that the analytic scheme will appear obvious” (Morse, 1994, p.25).

I chose to adopt an analytical approach informed by the principles of grounded theory. According to Richards (2003, p.18), this approach offers a systematic way of analyzing and interpreting the data, “normally a messy and frustrating process that is traditionally

seen as something of a mystery, causing even the best researchers to feel 'at sea' (Hammersley 1984b:60–2)".

The process of data analysis in this study was mostly guided by the recommendations of Creswell (2012, pp.236-245). Below is the visual model that he uses to summarize the process:

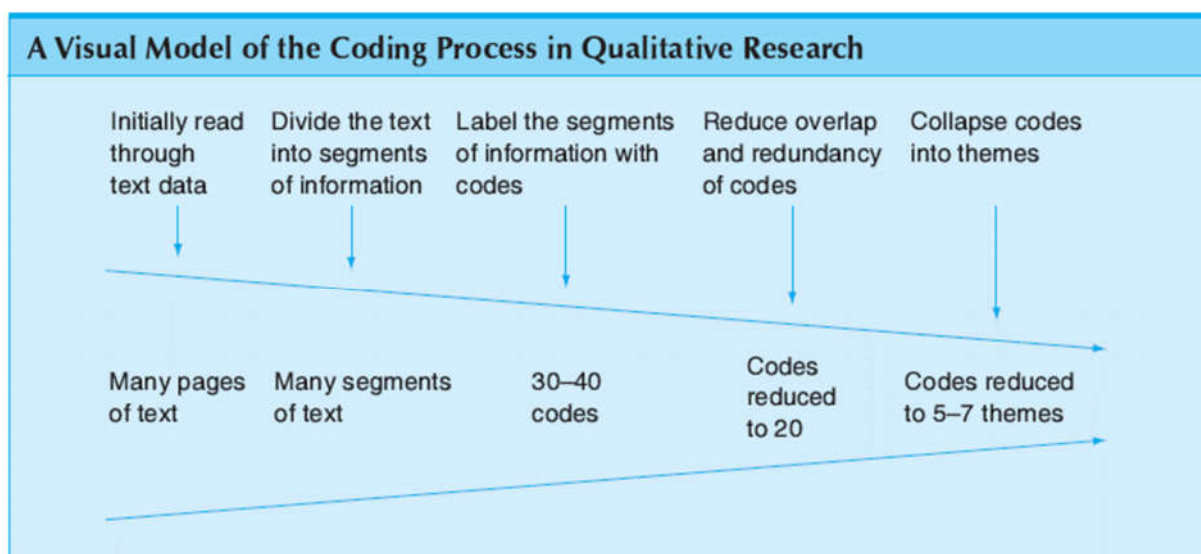


Figure 6: Creswell, 2012, p.244

Briefly stated, the process of data analysis consisted of the following four steps:

1. An initial reading of the transcripts for preliminary exploratory analysis to obtain a general sense of the data.
2. A second, more thorough reading to code the transcripts; the recommendations of Tesch (1990) and Creswell (2007), (as cited in Creswell, 2012, pp.244-245) were used as guidelines during the coding process.
3. The codes were condensed and reduced to form broader codes or categories.
4. The broad codes were collapsed to develop themes that are presented in the form of graphics or charts.

These steps of data analysis are described in many books on qualitative research (Creswell, 2007). They also cover what Creswell states are the “core elements of qualitative data analysis” (2007, p.148) which he discusses with reference to the works of important qualitative researchers: Madison (2005), Miles and Huberman (1994) and Wolcott (1994). All of these authors comment on the central steps of data analysis mentioned above.

I chose not to pre-code the data. As Creswell states, “Using ‘prefigured’ codes or categories...serve to limit the analysis to the ‘prefigured’ codes rather than opening up the codes to reflect the views of participants in a traditional qualitative way” (2007, p.152). According to Dierckx de Casterlé et al. (2012, p. 3), “Using a preconceived framework runs the risk of prematurely excluding alternative ways of organizing the data that may be more illuminating”. Persistence in using an a priori view of the phenomena could also lead to premature analytical closure (Sandelowski, 1995). My intention was to code the data inductively and not deductively. By adopting a deductive approach and strictly adhering to a pre-figured set of codes, one could find oneself classifying ideas under the pre-figured codes without attempting to see if they could be condensed under a different and perhaps more relevant code. There is a possibility that a researcher can miss some important points that are present in the data by forcing ideas under pre-figured codes and refusing to consider other options which are not on the list of pre-figured codes. In contrast, adopting an inductive approach to coding the data allows the researcher more freedom to consider as many ideas as possible and thereby produce a richer description of the data because the researcher is free to code, condense, collate, categorize and collapse data in as natural a way as possible without having to worry about forcing the data through the funnel of pre-figured codes.

I had to be mindful of one potential challenge that could compromise the richness of the data if not addressed properly. It is the challenge of retaining the integrity of each participant’s responses. As stated by Dierckx de Casterlé et al. (2012, p. 3), “The content of each interview is unique, differing from the other interviews qua experiences, tone, emotional involvement, physical involvement, etc.” (2012, p.3). Researchers have

to face the important challenge of retaining the integrity of each respondent's responses (Bailey & Jackson, 2003), because there is the potential risk that the isolation of different codes in order to make them more relatable to the instances of those codes in the responses from other participants could limit the researcher's understanding of the interviewee's perspective.

A full description of the outcomes of the analysis process are found at section 4.3.

3.4 Role of the Researcher

It is important to understand the role of the researcher in any study. For this purpose, I have clearly outlined my ontological and epistemological views (ref. 3.2). In this section, I will describe my role in the context of the setting of the current study and my relationship with the participants. During my time in the setting of the current study, I have held a few middle-management positions where I was responsible for evaluating different facets of teachers' performance. I have worked as a member of the PDU and among other things, I was responsible for the evaluation of teachers' classroom practice through classroom observations. After I left the PDU, I worked as an academic coordinator for one year. As an academic coordinator, my duties were more of an administrative nature and I was responsible for liaising with teachers on all the issues related to their professional responsibilities (ref. p.10 for details on the responsibilities of academic coordinators). Aside from my time working in a middle-management position, I have worked together with all the participants and I have known them personally. I also worked with seven out of the eleven participants (Teachers 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11) during my time either as a classroom observer or an academic coordinator. Therefore, it can be seen that at one time or another, I have been in a position to evaluate most of the participants of the study. However, it should be noted that at the time when the interviews were conducted, I did not hold any middle management position. My relationship with the participants has been that of a friend and colleague both before and after my time as a classroom observer and academic coordinator.

3.5 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are crucial in research. It is the researcher's responsibility to ensure that all the steps in their study are undertaken with honesty and integrity and that they take every step possible to prevent any harm from occurring to the participants. To comply with all the ethical guidelines outlined by the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2011), I followed a number of procedures. I started off by applying for the activation of the Certificate for Ethical Research Approval (appendix 1) to the Ethics Committee of the Graduate School of Education at the University of Exeter. In the certificate, I provided the details of my study, the participants, and the steps I was going to take to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. After obtaining clearance from the Ethics Committee, I applied for permission to conduct research at the setting of the current study. After correspondence with the Vice Dean for Graduate Studies and the Head of the Research Unit and allaying their concerns regarding confidentiality and anonymity, I was granted permission to conduct the study.

The next step was to contact the participants and gain their informed consent. Qualitative studies, more so than quantitative studies, require a certain level of intimacy between the researcher and the participants in order to understand the secret and highly private ideas regarding their lived experiences and therefore, the "ethical issues concerning deception and obtaining access to data loom large" (Gall et al., 2003, p. 75). I was mindful of this, and assured the participants that I would be as diligent as possible to ensure their anonymity and confidentiality. The aims and objectives were outlined in writing and explained in person to the participants (see appendix 3 for the Invitation to Participate / Letter of Informed Consent). I also explained that participation in the study would be entirely voluntary and that they could choose to withdraw at any stage of the study. The interview data were kept in my password protected computer that no one else had access to. I made the participants aware before the interviews about not mentioning anyone by name and not to provide any information that could lead to the identification of any individual. In the interview transcripts and in the study, the participants were referred to by numbers (Teacher 1, Teacher 2, etc.).

3.6 Trustworthiness

According to Richards (2003), the assertion that qualitative research does not measure up to the demanding standards of 'hard' science is a common one which is the result of prejudices that gain strength from the way we are exposed to the word 'research'. The perception that quantitative or experimental studies will automatically be more rigorous is a faulty one because the real basis for rigor is the proper application of techniques, and both quantitative and qualitative methods can lead to misleading conclusions if the methods used therein are not applied according to the standards that they are required to adhere to (White, 2002). Similarly, the perception that qualitative research is in and of itself not rigorous is erroneous because qualitative research "is anything but a soft option – it demands rigour, precision, systematicity and careful attention to detail" (Richards, 2003, p. 6). Guba and Lincoln's criteria for ensuring *trustworthiness* (the parallel term they use for rigor) in qualitative research have been used extensively in the four decades since their development in the 1980s (Morse, 2015). They have described four criteria of trustworthiness: truth value, consistency, neutrality and applicability (Lincoln & Guba, as cited in Noble & Smith, 2015). I have used different strategies for ensuring rigor and quality in each of the four criteria.

3.6.1 Truth Value

Truth value considers credibility and how confident the researcher is with the truth of the study's findings. The researcher recognizes that multiple realities exist, but tries to "establish a high level of harmony between the participants' expressions and the researcher's interpretations of them" (Given, 2008, p. 138). To ensure truth value, I used three strategies: respondent validation, ensuring groundedness and reflexivity. For respondent validation, I shared the respondents' interview transcripts with them, together with their pen-portraits and the list of codes they discussed, along with my observations about how their conversations revolved around particular ideas. I sought and gained their validation regarding my analyses on their interview data. Regarding groundedness, I tried painstakingly to allow the participants' voice be heard and not construct a thread of argument out of my own imagination. I tried to achieve this by describing in detail all the steps in the data analysis process and how each of the two

themes were developed. I have listed all the codes mentioned by the participants and the number of time each code was referenced (see appendix 4), the categories under which they were condensed, and ultimately, the themes under which the categories were collapsed. Furthermore, I have included a complete interview transcript with all the codes, categories, and themes highlighted by extracting the Coding Summary by Source from NVivo (appendix 5). The third strategy that I used to ensure truth value was reflexivity. Reflexivity takes into consideration the potential for researcher bias and its effect on study. I firmly adhere to the idea that researchers are human beings with biographies and distinct personalities shaped by a variety of factors related to their personal and professional lives and their own tendencies. Therefore, instead of hiding my role in the research process, I have clearly outlined my own ontological and epistemological views (ref. 3.2).

3.6.2 Consistency

Consistency relates to dependability and considers whether the findings of the study would be consistent if the study was replicated. It is the researcher's responsibility to leave an audit trail and keep all the processes of the study documented so that they are traceable for other researchers. I have endeavoured to achieve this by describing all the steps of the research in detail and including all the documents used in the course of the study in the body of the thesis or as appendices.

3.6.3 Neutrality

Neutrality is linked with confirmability and the extent to which the findings of the study are based on the data gathered from the participants and are not the result of other influences and biases. As with truth value, I have used reflexivity to ensure the neutrality of the findings of the current study.

3.6.4 Applicability

Applicability relates to generalizability and transferability of the results of a study to other contexts. While it is difficult to come up with absolutes that can be applied in all contexts, it is possible to benefit from the findings of studies conducted in different

contexts. To help teachers/researchers in different contexts benefit from the findings of this study, I have given the details of the context of the current study and provided thick descriptions of the interpretations of the phenomena under investigation.

3.7 Limitations

I have tried my best to conduct as robust a study as is possible within the limits of my intellectual capabilities and research experience. However, there is one factor that I consider to be a limitation of this study, even though it was out of my control. The issue is that of gender representation. The data was only collected from male participants and no females were interviewed. This was because of the social and cultural constraints dictated by the research context where the mixing of unrelated men and women is forbidden. Having had the occasion to work indirectly with some of the colleagues in the female campus of the setting of the current study, I was aware that there were some colleagues who could have contributed significantly to the study. When choosing participants for the study, I wanted the sample to be as diverse as possible. Therefore, I had to be mindful of their nationalities, professional backgrounds, level of experience etc.

The need for making the sample of the study as diverse as possible, together with my personal experiences, led me to believe that female colleagues could provide useful insights on the phenomena under investigation. I cogitated about ways of involving colleagues from the female campus, but the social and cultural constraints made that impossible for me.

3.8 Summary

In this chapter, I have provided an overview of the philosophical and methodological issues that have guided this research. I outlined that I chose to approach the study with an interpretive outlook because it allows the researcher to explore people's perceptions, experiences, and what meaning they ascribe to the realities they interact with in their daily lives. I chose to do a case study because it allowed me to design my study the way I wanted to, by giving the participants a voice and letting their beliefs take centre

stage. I have used semi-structured interviews to explore teachers' perceptions because they allow sufficient freedom to pursue different lines of inquiry without straying off the topic. An analytical approach informed by the principles of grounded theory was adopted to analyze the interview data. To develop a broader understanding of issues related to supervision from the organization's point of view, I analyzed all the documents used in the supervisory system. I also outlined the specific strategies that I adopted to ensure the truth value, consistency, neutrality and applicability, the four criteria for ensuring rigor and trustworthiness in qualitative research.

In the next chapter, I will report the findings of the study.

Chapter Four

Findings

4.1 Overview

In this chapter, the focus will be only to present the findings that emerged from the analysis of a) documents used in the supervisory cycle and b) the interview data. The research questions will be answered in the next chapter, where the findings of the study will be discussed in the context of wider theoretical debates in the field of teacher supervision.

The findings of the study will be reported in two parts in this chapter. In the first part, I will discuss the ideas that emerged from the analysis of documents that are part of the supervisory system. In the second part, I will discuss the codes, categories and themes that emerged from qualitative analysis of the interview data. However, before I start reporting the findings of the study, I will provide some very basic information about the participants. These pen-portraits have been drawn from summarizing key characteristics revealed through analysis and will help arrive at a better understanding of the issues being discussed. Readers will be in a better position to get the sense of and understand the concerns of each teacher if they familiarize themselves with the key characteristics of the participants as noted in the pen-portraits. It should be noted that these are very brief notes that only highlight things that were peculiar to the participants.

(For demographic information on the participants, please refer to section 3.3.3)

4.2 Pen-portraits

4.2.1 Teachers 1, 2 and 8

These were the oldest and most experienced teachers among the participants, with 30, 32 and 27 years of teaching experience respectively. They were nearing the end of their careers, at least in the context of the current study since they were approaching the mandatory retirement age, especially Teacher 1 and Teacher 2. They generally talked

about the need for respect for more experienced teachers and the need to supervise more experienced teachers differently. In general, supervisory activities did not strike them as very useful for their professional development.

4.2.2 Teachers 3 and 4

These two teachers were eager and willing to learn, although they did have some concerns about the way supervisory activities were enacted. Unequivocal in their belief that supervisory activities do have a positive effect on their teaching; they just wanted some changes in the system, mostly regarding the observers themselves.

4.2.3 Teachers 5, 7 and 11

Like Teachers 3 and 4, these teachers had some reservations about the way supervisory practices were enacted, but were generally eager to learn and believe supervisory practices are beneficial. What is different is that with these participants, the dominant idea is freedom. They believe that the threat of evaluation being tied with every activity makes it hard for teachers to focus on their development. In their view, the rigidity with which the supervisory team demands that teachers attend a set number of PD events could potentially be detrimental.

4.2.4 Teacher 9

According to him, if he were to design a supervisory system, he would make sure teachers are respected in it. In many ways, he sounds like Teachers 1, 2 and 8 (the experienced teachers) but he is different from them when it comes to the perception regarding efficacy of supervisory practices. He does see some value in supervisory activities. It should be noted that although he is the same age as Teacher 8 (52), he has been in teaching for only 15 years.

4.2.5 Teacher 6

He spoke at length about ethics, morality, and the need for a teacher to respect himself/herself and be conscientious in his/her job. He generally considers the supervisory activities to be beneficial, and talks about how they help him see himself

and how to improve his teaching practice. He highlighted the need for the administration to listen to teachers. According to him, the supervisory team should be open to criticism and feedback from teachers.

4.2.6 Teacher 10

This teacher believes that supervisory practices are generally useless, although he did once have a good experience with peer observation. He is frustrated by the fact that supervisory activities are a formality. He discussed at length the need for specific feedback which is directly related to classroom experience. He also talked a lot about developing ELT knowledge individually. Perhaps that is a corollary of his views about the futility of supervisory practices and his specific needs.

4.3 Document Analysis

In this section, ideas that emerged from the analysis of documents used in the supervisory cycle in the setting of the current study will be discussed. Throughout the section, codes and categories that emerged from the analysis of the interview data (ref. 4.4) will be referred to, which will be in *italics*.

The relevant **chapter in the Faculty Handbook** starts off with a preamble about the importance of the evaluation process and the role of classroom observations in it. After that, it is mostly descriptive and objective. Different parts of the supervisory system are described in detail: formal observations, informal observations, stages in the observation cycle, review, and appeal procedure. Figure 7 is a screengrab of the table of contents which outlines the areas covered in the chapter:

Chapter 7	
Faculty Evaluation and Classroom Observations	
7.1 Overview	53
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7.3 Student Evaluation	55
7.4 Classroom Observation Overview	55
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7.6.1 The Pre-Observation Discussion	58
7.6.2 The Class Visit and What to Expect	58
7.6.3 Feedback Session	59
7.7 Review and Appeal Process	59
7.7.1 Review Process	59
7.7.2 Appeal Process	60
7.7.3 Special Considerations Starting Week 5 of Module 4	60
7.8 Unsatisfactory Rating	60
7.9 Training and Support	61

Figure 7: Table contents for Chapter 7 in the Faculty Handbook

The detail and clarity with which all the parts are outlined manifests an awareness on the part of the supervision team for the need for *transparency* (section 4.5.2.7), one of the ideas that emerged during analysis of the interview data. One should always take the content of any organizational documents with a degree of caution because they sometimes paint an idealized picture of how things should be instead of how they are. As Zeichner and Tabachnick state, “The essential characteristics of teacher education programs are not to be found in public statements of intention, but through examinations of the experiences themselves” (cited in Zeichner & Liston, 1985, p. 156). However, in this case, it can be seen that the supervision team are explicit and there should be no surprises for the teachers.

The **Classroom Observation Evaluation Criteria** (Appendix 7) lists fourteen areas that the observer is required to evaluate. Each area can be rated on a scale of 1 to 5; 1 being unsatisfactory and 5 being outstanding. In addition, each rating for each area is

described in multiple bullet points. Table 3 is a screengrab for one of the areas, which is about using pair/group activities to generate student talk time:

C 8. Provides effective, focused, and communicative pair and/or group work activities to increase student talking time				
5. Outstanding	4. Above Average	3. Satisfactory	2. Needs Development	1. Unsatisfactory
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher uses a sufficient amount of pair and/or group work to generate a <i>good proportion</i> of Student Talk Time. Teacher uses extremely effective pair and/or group work that requires students to communicate and/or produce language. All pair and/or group work activities have a clear objective and reason for being done in pairs or groups. Most pair and group work activities could not be done individually. Pair check activities are not the primary type of pair work used. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher uses a sufficient amount of pair and/or group work to generate a <i>reasonable</i> amount of Student Talk Time. Teacher uses effective pair and/or group work that requires students to communicate and/or produce language. Most pair and/or group work activities have a clear objective and reason for being done in pairs or groups. Most pair and group work activities could not be done individually. Pair check activities are not the primary type of pair work used. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher engages learners in some pair and/or group work <i>which generates some Student Talk Time although more Student Talk Time would be better.</i> Teacher uses fairly effective pair and/or group work that generally requires students to communicate and/or produce language. Some pair and/or group work activities do not have a clear objective and/or reason for being done in pairs or groups. Some pair and group work activities could be done individually. Pair check activities account for about half of the time spent in pairs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher <i>doesn't generate enough Student Talk Time</i> as pair and/or group work is used insufficiently and there is little S-S interaction. Pair and/or group work is not always effective and sometimes only requires a minimal amount of communication between students. The objective for the activities and/or the reason for them being done in pairs or groups is not very clear. At least half of the pair and group work activities could have been done individually. If pair work is even used, pair check activities account for the majority of it. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher delivers a teacher-driven lesson with inadequate or no pair and group work and little Student Talk Time with very little S-S interaction. Pair and/or group work tends to not be effective and/or is used minimally. The objective for the activities, if any, and/or the reason for them being done in pairs or groups is not clear. Most of the pair and group work activities, if any, could have been done individually. If pair work is even used, pair check activities are almost the only form of pair work used.

Table 3: Point 8 from the Classroom Observation Rubric

For this particular area, there are five bullet points describing each rating. This means that an observer has to consider a total of twenty-five descriptors to choose a rating for this area. When all the descriptors for all fourteen areas are taken into account, there are a total of two hundred and eighty descriptors in the rubric. The duration of each classroom observation is fifty minutes. It is unrealistic to expect an observer to take into account two hundred and eighty descriptors for each and every observation. This raises issues about codes/categories that emerged during analysis of interview data, such as keeping a *holistic view of pedagogy, departure from a faultfinding model, and not obsessing over minutiae*. In the setting of the current study, teachers have voiced their frustration about the aforementioned codes/categories (as discussed in section 4.5.2.6) and the design of the classroom evaluation rubric seems to support their views in this matter. Although minor modifications have been made in the rubric based on teacher feedback, the basic structure was not changed in the six years from 2009. This evaluation rubric was implemented without any input from teachers. In fact, for about a year, only the supervisors had access to the rubric and it was not made available to the teachers. Teachers would only see their evaluation report without any knowledge of the criteria that were used to score the sixteen items on the form. This changed a year after the design and implementation of the rubric and the detailed evaluation rubric was

made available to the teachers prior to their observations so that they would know exactly what the observers were required to look at. However, there is still considerable disagreement on how the evaluation rubric is designed and interpreted because it usually calls on the observer to make subjective opinions or judgments about the lesson. Consider, for example, the difference between bullet point one for 5 (Outstanding) and 4 (Above Average) in Table 3:

5 (Outstanding): Teacher uses a sufficient amount of pair and/or group work to generate a *good proportion* of Student Talk Time.

4 (Above Average): Teacher uses a sufficient amount of pair and/or group work to generate a *reasonable* amount of Student Talk Time.

Here, the observer is being asked to make a subjective call on whether the student talk time was *reasonable* or there was a *good proportion* of it. Similarly, one bullet point in another area requires the observer to determine if the teacher is 'very sensitive' or just 'sensitive' to the students' culture, needs and level. Another bullet point in the same area has the observer determining the frequency with which the teacher calls students by name: 'almost always' (Outstanding) or 'often' (Above Average).

In a previous study conducted in the setting of the current study (Abdul Rehman, 2013), the head of the supervisory team discussed the same issue and agreed that the rubric is indeed unwieldy, but that changing it is not a straightforward process because the same supervisory system is used across four campuses. Any change in any part of the system has to be agreed upon by all four campuses, which are then implemented in all of them. Sometimes there is consensus in the men's campus about some change but the women's campus does not agree to it and vice versa. The view of the participant supervisors of that study was that if an individual supervisor working on their own deviates from the supervisory system outlined in the faculty handbook and the evaluation rubric, it would lead to too much variation in ratings within the Professional Development Unit. One supervisor said:

We are dealing with over 500 teachers across campuses. We need to be able to come to the administration and say that the teachers have been evaluated relatively equally. In a program of this size, it's going to be impossible for it to be completely equal. You cannot do a multiple choice question about teaching. There's always going to be some level of subjectivity. That's our reason for sticking to the rubric as opposed to somebody's opinion.

It is understandable to some extent that the observers do not deviate from the rubric for the sake of standardization. It is also understandable that making policy changes at such a large scale about a high-stakes issue is not easy. However, there needs to be more dialogue and a greater push to modify the evaluation rubric because that is what the teachers are calling for in the categories/codes *holistic view of pedagogy*, *departure from a faultfinding model*, and *not obsessing over minutiae*.

The **Formal Observation Evaluation Report** (Appendix 6) lists the fourteen areas that the observer is required to evaluate in tabular form. The observer has to tick one of five boxes in front of each evaluation criteria to indicate the teacher's performance. There are five parts on the next page:

i) Positive aspects of the lesson

ii) Areas to work on or consider further; the observer has to write down areas where the teacher needs to improve his/her performance. If an observer writes anything, they must give an example of what happened in the class that led them to highlight this area for improvement. In addition, they must also give practical suggestions or tips on how to work on the area highlighted for improvement.

iii) Comparison with last observation; this is a relatively recent addition in the report that was included on the request of the higher administration. The main reason was to keep tabs on the performance of teachers who received a low grade in the previous year. The administration wanted to see if there had been any improvement in the teacher's performance without having to go through the previous year's reports.

iv) Summary and recommendation; the observer has to write a short descriptive paragraph that summarizes what was observed in the lesson and recommendations that were made.

v) Instructor's comments; teachers could put down any objections or points of concern regarding the observation in writing.

The codes under the category *feedback from instructional leaders* (section 4.5.1.7) were that the feedback should be *robust, concrete, detailed, plausible, honest, specific* and *relevant to and based on observed teaching behavior*. All of these qualities of feedback would depend on the observer; the form itself cannot make an observer give feedback that is characterized by all of these codes. However, it can be seen from the design of the form that the celebration active in its creation was somewhat influenced and informed by ideological underpinnings that recognize the need for feedback to be characteristic of the codes discussed by the teachers. If the observation report form was limited to the first page which only has the table, it would have been only a decontextualized checklist which would not make a lot of sense to the teacher, and even the observer, if they were to refer to it later. The points discussed about the 'hair-splitting' nature of different areas, ratings and scales of the rubric could also be made about the first page of the report. However, by referring to specific incidents or activities that were observed during the lesson, and by giving concrete suggestions about different ways of approaching a particular situation, the observers are able to draft a more productive report, and the design of the report helps observers achieve that.

The **Evaluation Criteria for Development** (Appendix 8) lists three areas in which teachers are rated:

i) Participation in PD events arranged inside the organization

ii) Participation in external PD events

iii) The **Professional Development Report** (Appendix 9). Every teacher has to submit a report toward the end of each academic year in which they list what they have done to achieve their PD goals (which are selected by teachers just before the start of the academic year).

As is the case in the classroom observation rubric, each of these three areas is rated on a scale of 1 (unsatisfactory) to 5 (outstanding), and each rating has a different number of descriptors in the form of bullet points. These ratings are used to draft the **Development Score Report**, where teachers are given ratings based on (a) the number of internal PD events attended, (b) participation in face-to-face or online discussion groups, (c) the quality of their **Professional Development Report**, and (d) the number of external PD events attended. The **Development Score Report** is like the 'final product' of the developmental cycle of the organization. Figure 8 is a screengrab of a part of one teacher's **Development Score Report**:

EVALUATION CATEGORIES		RATING
A	Attendance at ELI-Sponsored Professional Development Events	2
B	Participation in Face-to-Face and Edmodo Discussion Groups	3
C	Professional Development Report	5
D	External Professional Development Undertaken	3

Overall Rating	3
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PDU Comments for each category:
 (A) Attended 26% of the ELI sponsored events. (B) Attended 4 discussion groups. No Edmodo post. (C) The teacher wrote a detailed report with clear substantiating evidence. (D) Read 7 articles from different journals which is equivalent to 1 entire journal.

General Notes:

Category A

5=	61% or higher attendance at PDU workshops (=attendance of at least 19 of the 31 workshops offered)
4=	47% or higher attendance at PDU workshops (=attendance of at least 15 of the 31 workshops offered)
3=	32% or higher attendance at PDU workshops (=attendance of at least 10 of the 31 workshops offered)
2=	16% or higher attendance at PDU workshops (=attendance at 5-9 of the 31 workshops offered)
1=	0-15% attendance at PDU workshops (=attendance at 0-4 of the 31 workshops offered)

*These standards are lower than the ones on the rubric and may be adjusted higher for next year.
 For teachers who joined after Module 4, the percentages were calculated only for attendance at workshops that were presented after they started teaching in the ELI.*

Category B

5=	Led a discussion group OR attended all meetings of relevant discussion groups and had 8 or more meaningful Edmodo posts.
4=	Attended all meetings of relevant discussion groups and had at least 4 meaningful Edmodo posts.
3=	Attended at least 2 face-to-face meetings (or attended only 1 and had some Edmodo posts if only 1 discussion group was relevant to his PD goals)
2=	Attended at least 1 face-to-face meeting
1=	Didn't attend any discussion groups

These standards are lower than the ones on the rubric and may be adjusted higher for next year. If there were no discussion groups relevant to a teacher's professional development goals, this category was left unrated and the Overall Rating was calculated by averaging the other 3 categories.

Figure 8: The Development Score Report

It is clear that what is supposed to be a document that is charting a teacher's professional development in the course of an academic year lists 'evaluation categories'. It is the 'development vs evaluation' debate that is discussed at the end of section II of the literature review. When one considers this **Development Score Report** together with the **Evaluation Criteria for Development** and the **Professional Development Report** — which is about five pages long in which teachers have to list all PD activities they have taken part in during the previous year and exactly how these have impacted their teaching with practical examples — it can be seen that the entire developmental cycle is inextricably tied with evaluation. The code *flexibility of the*

system vs rigidity was the most frequently discussed code, under which the participants highlighted the very same issue: Too much was being demanded from the teachers; their development was being evaluated, commodified and engulfed in an audit culture. The design of the three documents related to PD certainly supports their assertions. Everything related to PD — from the number of workshops attended to the number of posts made on discussion forums — was being enumerated and rated.

So far in this chapter, I have discussed the ideas that emerged from the analysis of documents that are part of the supervisory cycle and are the instruments that are used during the course of supervisory practices. I will now discuss the codes, categories and themes that emerged from qualitative analysis of the interview data.

4.4 Analysis of Interview Data

The interview data were analyzed using an approach that was informed by the principles of grounded theory in QSR NVivo 10. The process was iterative. Initially, about 70 codes emerged. Among these, there were some that were inextricably linked to each other; therefore, I grouped them together and listed them as child nodes under a code that encompassed all of them. This process reduced the number of codes to 40. Next, the codes that were similar were combined to form 17 categories. These categories were then collapsed under 2 themes:

1) The professional aspect

2) The social aspect

The original list of codes that emerged after the first round of open coding is attached as Appendix 1.

Table 4 lists codes that were combined and the categories under which they were grouped.

Categories	Codes
Training	workshops, external trainers, in-house trainers, orientation for new teachers
Flexibility & receptivity of the system	flexibility of the system vs rigidity, observer's flexibility, incorporating teacher feedback, freedom for engaging in different PD activities, realistic PD expectations from the administration
Developing ELT knowledge individually	keeping abreast of latest ELT research, reading, webinars, videos
Observation Cycle	formal observations, informal observations, recording detailed data during observations, informal class visits, pre-observation meetings
Encouragement	encouragement from instructional leader, encouragement from administration, acknowledgement of good teaching practice
Formal Teacher Training Courses	PD courses, multiple PD options and opportunities
Discussion	discussions with instructional leaders, discussion groups
Holistic view of pedagogy	departure from a faultfinding model, not obsessing over minutiae
Collegiality	collaboration, familiarity with observers, trust, respect, blame-free & non-penalizing support, avoiding managerial nomenclature

Table 4: Combining codes to form categories

Four codes were not changed at this stage because they were already dense and had multiple child nodes: *personal qualities of instructional leaders*, *professional qualities of instructional leaders*, *peer to peer interaction*, *feedback from instructional leaders*. Four other codes were also not changed because they were not directly related to the other codes: *tier based developmental system*, *transparency*, *accountability*, *probation period*.

After this stage of the analysis, the list of categories consisted of seventeen categories. These categories were collapsed under two themes. Below is the list of categories and the themes under which they were collapsed.

Theme one: The professional aspect

- *professional qualities of instructional leaders*
- *training*
- *observation cycle*
- *peer to peer interaction*
- *developing ELT knowledge individually*
- *discussion*
- *feedback from instructional leaders*
- *tier based developmental system*
- *formal teacher training courses*
- *probation period*

Theme two: The social aspect

- *flexibility & receptivity of the system*
- *personal qualities of instructional leaders*
- *collegiality*
- *accountability*
- *encouragement*
- *holistic view of pedagogy*
- *transparency*

Theme one, ***the professional aspect***, as the name indicates, covers all the activities and concepts directly related to teaching practice and professional activities of teachers, whereas theme two, ***the social aspect***, covers concepts which are related to the way the organization deals with teachers.

In the next section, I will discuss in detail the two themes under which all the interview data was collapsed. Please note that all the categories, codes and their child nodes will be in italics.

4.5 Themes

4.5.1 Theme One: The Professional Aspect

Under this theme, teachers discussed ideas and concepts directly related to teaching practice and professional activities.

4.5.1.1 Professional Qualities of Instructional Leaders

Professional qualities of instructional leaders were by far the most discussed ideas. According to the participants, instructional leaders must have *content knowledge and expertise*. Teacher 3 said that his observer's lack of ELT knowledge rendered his classroom observation useless. He stated that "It was the most negative observation I have had in my life, because he (the observer) doesn't understand anything about TESOL". Another important quality that teachers expected instructional leaders to have was *experience*. According to Teacher 1, "It takes an old hand to do it". Teacher 4 also expressed his frustration at having to deal with instructional leaders with no experience; he said that "You have some inexperienced people in this process, who, instead of looking at the good side, only focus their attention on the negatives". Both Teacher 4 and Teacher 8 expressed their belief that in their view, instructional leaders adopting a fault-finding approach is a direct result of their inexperience.

Instructional leaders' *professional background* was another idea that teachers referred to. They wanted the instructional leader to be grounded in ELT and, more particularly, instructional leadership. They expressed concerns about people who were educated in other disciplines and had different careers and have chosen ELT only as a second or even a third choice. In the words of Teacher 8, "Administrators should bring in people who have given their lives to this profession". Another desirable quality teachers wanted in instructional leaders was that they should be well *trained*. One last thing mentioned

by one of the teachers was that instructional leaders should have the commensurate *academic qualifications* that one would expect a trainer of university teachers to have.

4.5.1.2 Training

After *professional qualities of instructional leaders*, the most discussed idea was that of the *training* provided to the teachers by the organization. Most of the participants pointed to *workshops* as a great way to improve their teaching practice. Even Teacher 1, who had more than 30 years of teaching experience and generally did not attach a lot of importance to most supervisory practices, stated: “Frankly, I have picked up some fantastic little things with these workshops”. Teacher 3 said that “Whenever I go and attend workshops, I see a difference in my teaching”. In the words of Teacher 6, “With workshops we get more ideas and we refresh and update our knowledge of methodology and teaching English in general”. Both Teacher 6 and Teacher 9 stressed the importance of frequent and regular workshops during the academic year. Teacher 9 went so far as to say that if he had to design a supervisory system, he would implement a system of bi-weekly workshops.

Teacher 8 and Teacher 11 represented two different views regarding who should be delivering workshops. Teacher 8 emphasized the importance of *external trainers*. He said that the administration should bring in professional trainers from outside. Teacher 9 expressed the same belief and stated that he does not learn a lot when the workshops were delivered by his fellow teachers. He said: “These people (fellow teachers) have their own styles, their own way of delivering the workshop, ideas, so it’s always good to learn from trainers who come from outside”. Teacher 11, however, held the opposite view and expressed his preference for *in-house trainers*. In his opinion, workshops delivered by his fellow teachers were much more effective and relevant. In his words:

I place a lot of emphasis on them because the workshops are produced by the teachers, my colleagues, it’s not necessarily someone coming from outside... We had this in the previous institution, where we would have workshops delivered by trainers from prestigious educational organizations, and they are great but they are not falling within the KSA (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia) context... What’s crucial is when

you have somebody who understands your context, your ontology, and provide some ideas.

Teacher 2 also touched on the subject of in-house trainers and said that senior teachers from within the organization should provide workshops.

In addition to workshops for teachers, Teacher 4 and Teacher 5 also highlighted the importance of *orientation for new teachers*. Teachers who are new in an organization, even if they have prior teaching experience, need special attention to help them acclimatize to their new teaching environment. According to teacher 4:

They were in a different setting and their practices were different and now they have come to a different place and we have different expectations, so in order for them to meet our expectations, we want them to work the way we want them to. For that we need to give them practice, guidance, training and all that.

4.5.1.3 Observation Cycle

The next most discussed category was the *observation cycle*. Both *formal* and *informal observations* were discussed by teachers. However, *informal observations* were looked upon more favourably. Even when *formal observations* were discussed, teachers wanted them to be less rigid and more like *informal observations*. Being observed once or twice a year only under a very rigid framework was deemed to be of limited value. Teachers wanted to be observed more frequently but without the threat of contract related decisions being made on the basis of an infinitesimal part of their professional life. Teacher 11 stated:

[If] the observation is a very formal process, it won't evoke confidence, it makes the teachers quite apprehensive, and therefore perhaps it's not very reflective of what is actually happening in the classroom. I would like something less formal, something that's more spontaneous, more natural, perhaps more regular. When you have an observation once a year, it's almost an opportunity to deceive, which is actually the reality of what's happening in the classroom; whereas if you're being informally observed, perhaps not by the Professional Development Unit but by colleagues, or a sort of informal mentoring system which is monthly, or at least once a term, you get a much better impression of what's happening in the classroom.

Teacher 10 also emphasized the importance of more frequent observations. When asked about the kind of supervisory system he would implement if he had the choice, he stated:

I would try to observe teachers many, many times, as much as I can per year... The frequent observations are kind of, you know, teachers are learning, and this learning, this process, is going to take time... It's not going to be like 'okay you have these kind of weaknesses so you need to work on them,'...OK I need to work on them but at the same time I need to be observed, and I need to be given feedback. Am I making progress or not?

Echoing the beliefs of Teacher 11, Teacher 7 made it clear that the observations he considers valuable are less formal. In his words, observations "should be without a mark, nonthreatening, nonintrusive... It should be more of a suggestion and encouragement". As long as it was informal, Teacher 3 said that he would be comfortable even with the idea of unannounced visits.

Teacher 2 and Teacher 5 drew attention to another part of the observation cycle that they believed was crucial: *pre-observation meetings*. Teacher 2 said that he considered it to be a very important part of the observation cycle and that he "would insist on a personal visit with the instructional leader before the observation". According to Teacher 5, during a pre-observation conference

The teacher gets to know what he is expected to do by this particular observer... The observer can also explain what he expects from the teacher... They can come to a common agreement about what could be done in the classroom and what should be avoided.

The most important component of the observation cycle around which all ideas are constructed is the actual classroom observation. However, according to Teacher 10, instructional leaders should know the importance of *recording detailed data during classroom observations*. Otherwise, the whole purpose of the observation cycle could potentially be defeated. As will be seen from the discussion about another category, *feedback from instructional leaders*, teachers expect to get *concrete, specific and robust*

feedback from the instructional leaders, and if instructional leaders do not record detailed data during observations, it would be hard to discuss the observation with the teacher, especially since in many situations the post-observation conference could be days after the classroom observation. During that time, the observer could have observed perhaps two or three other teachers, and the teacher could have taught more than a dozen other lessons, so it would be hard to remember what actually happened during the observation without the aid of detailed classroom observation data. Teacher 10 stated: “For me this is the main problem; because they don’t record, sometimes they don’t even take notes, so when you ask them [specific] questions and seek clarification about a point they made, they just say they don’t remember”.

4.5.1.4 Peer to Peer Interaction

Another category that was discussed by the participants as being a catalyst for pedagogical improvement was *peer to peer interaction*. *Peer observation* was highlighted as one of the most important forms of *peer to peer interaction*. Teacher 2 spoke of an experience in the past where he was able to transform his teaching because of peer observations. He said:

When I requested assistance or information regarding how I should adapt my teaching style I was told that the best way to do that would be to observe other teachers, on how they taught... It was an informal arrangement, I went to the two teachers, I asked them when it would suit them, and I sat for two sessions in each classroom, which gave me a brilliant insight into how they taught and how they dealt with the students, the type of activities that they did, which was really different from my experience with European students.

Being mentored by more experienced teachers was another idea within the scope of peer to peer interaction that was mentioned by the teachers. These support sessions should not only be *frequent*, but also *embedded in the system*, according to Teacher 11. *Mentoring other teachers* is also a useful way of developing one’s own teaching. Teacher 5, who worked as a mentor, stated that “through this process, I as a teacher improved a lot...I give teachers some suggestions and they come up with some

suggestions that I didn't know about". *Discussion with peers* was deemed to be helpful by Teacher 10, who said:

When you discuss things with your friend, you just feel relaxed and he feels relaxed, especially when he's qualified, and then you start asking questions. I've done this: If you criticize something, tell me how it could be done better...So he gave me suggestions, and then you start a discussion and you come up with the best solution; it's different when you have it with the boss.

Another idea mentioned by Teacher 7 was that of *peer monitoring*, wherein a teacher is monitored and supported by another teacher as opposed to an academic coordinator or an instructional leader. In all of these different suggestions by the different teachers, there is a common thread: That of taking help from one's colleagues as much as possible. In the words of Teacher 10, "When you have this kind of thing with a friend, it's more relaxed for both parties".

4.5.1.5 Developing ELT Knowledge Individually

Not all ideas relevant to the improvement of pedagogical practice were related to what the instructional leaders or the administration should do. Participants also highlighted the importance of *developing ELT knowledge individually* through *reading, webinars* and *videos*. These would help teachers develop expertise in ELT. Teacher 11 felt strongly about *keeping abreast of latest ELT research*; he believed teachers can easily do that by regularly watching webinars and videos and reading the latest literature related to the field of ELT. This category proved that teachers knew the importance of taking the initiative in developing themselves instead of only demanding that the administration take all the burden of providing training to all teachers.

4.5.1.6 Discussion

The next idea that was brought up by some of the participants was that of *discussion*. Teacher 4 and Teacher 8 spoke about *discussion with instructional leaders*. From the sheer number of references about qualities of instructional leaders, both personal and professional, we can draw the conclusion that teachers attach a lot of importance to what could be learned from instructional leaders. Teacher 4 and Teacher 8 provided a

crucial link here; instructional leaders, for all their humbleness, candour, empathy and friendliness (qualities teachers said were important for instructional leaders), still have to discuss things with teachers instead of giving them a list of do's and don'ts. According to Teacher 4:

There is not one way of doing something, there can be multiple ways. So, instead of them telling teachers that this is how it's done, they should basically discuss what more could be done in order to improve that and appreciate the thing which the teacher did right in the class.

Teacher 8 also expressed a similar belief:

Somebody came to my class and I remember there was a lot of discussion about a number of things, and that was very positive...Somehow, you always learn from any discussion, even when you feel like there is disagreement on some things.

Teacher 8, like Teacher 1, was a veteran teacher with close to thirty years of teaching experience, and generally did not attach importance to many supervisory activities, but he valued discussion with instructional leaders because he thought they help teachers explore more ways of doing things.

Teachers 1, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 11 highlighted another idea within the category of *discussion: discussion groups*. In the context of the current study, there are regular discussion groups in which most of the teachers participate. There is an element of evaluation here because attending these discussion groups helps improve the teachers' rating in their annual evaluation report. However, teachers still considered them to be beneficial because it gives them a platform to float different ideas, put them out for scrutiny and listen to other teachers' views and respond to them. Another strong point about the discussion groups conducted in the setting of the current study is that they were based on themes identified by the teachers themselves and teachers have a choice of which discussion groups they can attend. Teacher 8 stated:

I participate in discussion groups...I'm very vocal...I try to give as much and participate as much as I can. I don't present but when in the presentation there is a

question and answer session. I definitely participate in that, and as an individual I believe that it is very helpful.

Teacher 8 here is pointing to an obvious benefit of discussion groups: All the participants have an equal opportunity to participate. For Teacher 6, “Discussion groups are really good opportunities to share your problems”. Similarly, Teacher 11 said that “Discussion groups, of course, are an opportunity to interact and engage and bounce off ideas off one another”.

4.5.1.7 Feedback From Instructional Leaders

There will always be times when an instructional leader has to provide feedback to the teachers regarding certain points that they observe in lessons. Some of the feedback will be negative and teachers expressed their ideas about what they expected from the *feedback from instructional leaders* in these cases. According to the teachers, the feedback should be *concrete, detailed, plausible and honest*. In addition, it should be *robust* and *specific*. Teacher 10 went into detail about how robust and specific he wants the feedback to be:

If [the instructional leader] says I should have created time to do a certain activity, he should know that this time is going to have to come from somewhere. For example, if his suggested activity is going to take five minutes, he should tell me how I can create these five minutes. What part of which activity that I did in class should I have skipped to free up time for his suggested activity? He should tell me why I should have skipped my activity to create time for something he is suggesting.

Teacher 7 also said that if an instructional leader writes a suggestion for improvement, he would demand that the instructional leader justify his assertion. Furthermore, the feedback should not be based on nebulous generalisations and platitudes about good teaching. It should be *relevant to & based on observed teaching behavior*. Teacher 10 spoke about a very interesting experience he had had in one of his previous teaching jobs. He joined a new school and as per the policy of that school, he had to be observed in the first month. He says he prepared what he considered an excellent lesson plan which he was able to deliver perfectly according to his plan. However, the feedback he received was rather desultory and he was asked to improve on many things. A lot of the

feedback was not even based on what he did in the class. In the second month, he had to be observed again, and this time, the observer was full of praise in the post-observation conference, although Teacher 10 thought that the lesson was not one of his best. Again, he felt that the praise was not based on what actually happened in the class. It was only after he spent some time in that school and interacted with other teachers who had been there for some time that he discovered it was a general trend for the supervisory team there: After the first observation, a teacher was always supposed to get a low score regardless of what kind of lesson he/she delivered. This was supposed to be some sort of baptism of fire where the supervisory team was laying down the law for new teachers. They were letting the teachers know that they have to work hard on improving their teaching because there were many points for consideration observed during the lesson. By the time of the second observation, if the teacher had still not left the school, he would get a 'normal' observation. According to Teacher 10, he found the feedback for both observations, both positive comments and constructive criticism, to be worthless because it was not *relevant to & based on observed teaching behaviour*.

4.5.1.8 Tier-based Developmental System

It is interesting that this category was directly mentioned only by the three most experienced teachers among the participants: Teacher 1, Teacher 2, and Teacher 8. They had 30, 32, and 27 years of experience respectively. With their decades of teaching experience and involvement in different kinds of supervisory systems over the years, they wanted to be treated differently than other teachers who had fewer years of teaching experience or were novice teachers. Teacher 8 had this to say about a post-observation conference with an instructional leader:

I thought that he was treating me as if I was a naïve person, I was kind of an upstart, I was somebody who has been teaching only for a couple of years, and I was surprised, I was shocked, and later on I told him, look, you are talking to a person who has been teaching for decades and who believes that teaching runs in his blood.

In this particular instance, Teacher 8 said that the instructional leader gave him what he called a list of mistakes Teacher 8 had made during the observed lesson. This was a very directive approach and it may have been appropriate in a pre-service training context, or perhaps for a novice teacher, but Teacher 8 found it to be unacceptable. Teacher 1 also made the point that he is willing to develop himself provided the approach is right. He said: "You will never teach an old fox new tricks, but you can teach me better ones, so I'm open". Teacher 2, who was the most experienced teacher among the participants with 32 years of experience, wanted to be 'left alone' because he does not see any benefit in the rigorous supervisory systems that are imposed on him at this point in his career. He stated:

I really don't need somebody to supervise me to [be a good teacher]. If you have a teacher who does not prepare adequately, and who tries to get away with the minimum in the teaching process, then I think [a rigorous] supervisory system would probably force him to change his style and attitude towards teaching, but in my case, it would be frivolous and unnecessary. I have about 30 odd years of teaching experience and I think I have developed professionally to quite an extent where I can look back and say 'Well, I've come from that point, I have moved on to this point now. Can I really improve? Can I professionally develop further than where I am at the moment?' That's the first thing. At my age and with my experience so far I think I have attained a reasonable standard of professionalism in teaching and I have adopted teaching styles and everything, I think, required for any good teacher to attain.

When pressed on what he would suggest to develop a better supervisory system which caters to the needs of teachers in different stages of their careers, he said:

I would develop a system that is based on tiers where you would have novice teachers coming into the system, developing teachers, and then professionally developed teachers who could be the guiding peers for the other teachers. The system currently in place regards all the teachers exactly the same, so the instructional leaders do not adapt their observations and the amount of supervision that is enforced on all teachers. I think there should be an adaptation and a leniency towards the senior teachers.

It's apparent that Teacher 2 does not see the value of 'blanket' supervision that treats all teachers the same regardless of their needs and experience. Perhaps the reason is that

he never got the chance late in his career to be part of a differentiated supervision program that has different streams for teachers in different stages of their career; that is why he came to the conclusion that he does not need to be subjected to ‘blanket’ supervisory programs. Glickman’s ‘Developmental Supervision’ would seem to be a viable option for teachers like Teacher 2. The instructional leader adopts one of four approaches described by Glickman that is suitable for a particular teacher based on his/her developmental stage. For someone like Teacher 2, for example, the instructional leader could choose the *Nondirective Approach*, which is a self-directing approach in which the teacher develops solutions and ongoing activities to assist with examining practices. The instructional leader listens in a nonjudgmental manner, asks open-ended questions, provides clarification to questions and extends inquiry through reflection, roleplaying scenarios, and dialogue (Glickman, cited in Zepeda, 2012). Glatthorn (1997) has also written that some experienced teachers prefer to work on their own for their professional development. This idea of developmental and differentiated supervision will be discussed in detail in the next chapter as it is one of the significant points that emerged during the course of the study. Although the other participants did not mention this category explicitly, I will argue that a developmental and differentiated approach will be suitable for all the participants based on the beliefs they articulated during the interviews.

4.5.1.9 Formal Teacher Training Courses

The next category that the teachers mentioned for the improvement of pedagogical practice is *formal teacher training courses*. Before I discuss this category, I need to clarify how this category is different from some of the other categories (training, observation cycle etc.) under this theme, because the ultimate goal for all of them is professional development. The category of *formal teacher training courses* is being used to discuss teachers’ ideas about formal professional development courses and programs of study as opposed to any and all activities related to the improvement of pedagogical practice. Teacher 6 spoke of how he felt overwhelmed when he got his first real job as a full-time university teacher. In his words: “In the beginning you get shocked, you know what you really lack and what you really need to improve yourself”.

After realizing what the requirements of the job are, he said one can always improve oneself in different ways, one of which is to attend *formal teacher training courses*. Teacher 2 also highlighted the importance of such courses for teachers. Every individual has her/his own predilections; that is why Teachers 5, 6 and 9 emphasized the importance of *multiple PD options and opportunities*. In the context of the current study, the supervisory team regularly communicates information about different courses offered by prestigious training organizations. They also work with the organization to help teachers attend these courses. Occasionally, they even get these training organizations to offer customized courses for the needs of the teachers. The teachers appreciated these efforts of the supervisory team.

4.5.1.10 Probation Period

The last category under this theme is *probation period*. In some educational organizations, new teachers are placed under probation for a few months and they are subjected to a rigorous supervisory cycle to determine their suitability for that organization. Teacher 1 and Teacher 3 expressed their belief that this is a very good system that works reciprocally. An organization can choose which teachers to retain and which ones to terminate at the end of the probation period. The teachers that they will be left with will be the ones who they believe will be valuable members of their workforce and there will be less chances of friction between teachers and instructional leaders. Similarly, by the end of a rigorous probation period, teachers will have a very clear idea of what is expected of them and what the demands of the job are. They will be able to make a well-informed decision about choosing to continue with a particular organization if everything regarding the organization's expectations from teachers is communicated clearly.

So far, I have discussed the codes and categories related to **Theme 1: *The professional aspect***. All of these ideas are related to concepts that are directly linked to pedagogical practice and professional activities. Teachers also discussed other ideas which are related to the way the organization deals with teachers. These ideas come under **Theme 2: *The social aspect***, and will be discussed below.

4.5.2 Theme Two: The Social Aspect

Under this theme, teachers discussed how their working environment could be made better.

4.5.2.1 Flexibility and Receptivity of the System

The most frequently mentioned category under this theme was *flexibility & receptivity of the system*. Teachers wanted the supervisory system to be more teacher-friendly. Under this category, teachers discussed the *flexibility of the system vs rigidity*, with Teachers 1, 2, 5, 7 and 11 expressing serious concerns about the effects of a procrustean and punitive supervisory system. Teacher 1 spoke about how in his three decades of experience he has seen supervisory systems in different contexts all over the world where “Teachers are micromanaged to the T”. He stated:

That’s just the way it is, and it’s not that it’s just here, it’s all over in the world in education. Teachers are micromanaged to the T, I mean, if you get a school of 1000 learners then you will have a minimum of 80 admin staff, and each one of the admin staff will work out something, but there is only one person who can actually do that something. Everyone wants to justify his little position and therefore, they work out things. So, teachers today are utterly overworked and overburdened because of micromanagement of teachers.

Teacher 1, like the other teacher who discussed this category, emphasized the importance of actual teacher/instructional leader interaction via dialogue as opposed to a rigid system of micromanagement and paperwork. He also said that if he were to design a supervisory system, he would “take the sword or the dagger effect out of it and bring sincerity into it,” and in his view the only way to do it was to talk to teachers. Teacher 5 also expressed concerns about the fact that the supervisory cycle could be stringent, in that teachers who do not attend a certain number of workshops or discussion groups can get a low score in the annual professional development report. Teachers should have the *freedom of engaging in different PD activities*. He stated:

If you’re forced to do something, then you don’t do everything very honestly. That’s why I think they [instructional leaders] should not be very rigid...They can ask us to watch webinars or read articles, or they can ask us what we have learned from those

things, but they should not give a certain number, and say that you have to watch or read these many number of things, otherwise you'll get a low score...It doesn't have to be so strict that teachers complete those tasks for the sake of completing them and finishing the paperwork related to them.

Teacher 7 expressed the same view, and added:

I like the fact that I'm being pushed because I want to achieve something...I need that part. However, I feel that if you overdo it, it might actually give you the reverse effect. Teachers might turn sour towards achieving these goals and just give rote answers to fill up the paperwork.

For Teacher 6, *incorporating teacher feedback* is an important factor for the supervisory system. He said:

Different types of systems would be beneficial in their own way but they have to have this open window for criticism and feedback. Whatever kind of supervisory system you devise, it should be open to criticism and open to feedback from the teachers. A system that works is one which is open to continuous feedback, development and updating. They need to listen to those who are using their products, so to speak; products which are aimed at improving the learning experience for the students.

Another code under this category is *realistic PD expectations from the administration*, which was discussed by Teacher 5. According to him, teachers should not be bombarded with demands from the organization to engage in workshops, discussion groups, seminar, webinars, professional development courses, formal and informal observations etc. With no attempt at tautology, it should be noted that teachers are teachers: They have a full-time job. They cannot and should not be expected to put as much time and energy on professional development as trainee teachers in a teacher college.

The last code under this category was that of *observer's flexibility*, in which Teacher 5 voiced his opinion that some instructional leaders manifest a tendency to be stubborn in relation to what they write in their written reports of the classroom observations. This idea is closely related to the other codes under the category of *flexibility & receptivity of the system*, except that in this one, as the name indicates, Teacher 5 spoke about the

importance of instructional leaders as individuals to be flexible and willing to discuss things with teachers in relation to their evaluation reports.

4.5.2.2 Personal Qualities of Instructional Leaders

The next category is *personal qualities of instructional leaders*. According to the participants, an instructional leader should have the necessary *social skills* in order to be successful. They should try to be *friendly* because that puts the teachers at ease and makes it easier for them to perform better. This is even more crucial in institutions (such as the setting of this study) where observations are scarce, because the teacher/instructional leader relationship is already fraught with potential complications and the instructional leader's cold and distant behavior could exacerbate the situation further. Teacher 2 talked about a time when the observers' lack of social skills negatively affected his performance and perspective of the supervisory activities:

On the morning of my observation I started my lesson like normal, waiting for them to arrive, and while I was busy writing on the board the two gentleman came in and they sat right at the back of the class without introducing themselves to me or to the class or anything...when I was finished with my lesson they gathered their papers and they walked out without thanking me for anything; once again, my expectation was that they would come in and introduce themselves to me or perhaps just say thank you very much and this is what we have observed, or whatever.

In this situation, there is nothing inherently wrong with the observers' behaviour; they just came, observed the class and left. One could argue that they did their job. However, it has to be understood that classroom observations (or all human interaction for that matter) do not happen in a vacuum. They are social events involving humans and as such, must be within the bounds of what is considered acceptable and decent behaviour socially. In fact, observers should try even harder to put the teachers at ease because classroom observations make teachers nervous and anxious (Aubusson, Steele, Dinham, & Brady, 2007; Bailey, 2007; Borich, 1994; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Kilbourn, Keating, Murray, & Ross, 2005). Teachers discussed other *social skills* as well that they said were important for instructional leaders. According to them, an instructional leader should be *supportive, empathetic, a good listener, candid,*

understanding and *humble*. Perhaps all of these qualities can be summed up in one quote from Teacher 1 when he described the kind of instructional leader he considered to be ideal: “A person who is not a Sergeant Major but who has got the interest of the students at heart”. Other codes mentioned under this category were that instructional leaders should be *unobtrusive in class*, *unprejudiced*, *accommodating*, *objective*, and *open-minded*. It can already be seen that there is a level of contradiction in what teachers expect from instructional leaders. Some teachers call for the instructional leaders to be empathetic and friendly while others want them to be unobtrusive and objective. It can certainly be argued that these qualities do not entail mutual exclusivity; however, analysis of all the data has indicated that this agglomeration of qualities is not a manifestation of a desire on the part of the teachers to see all of them in one instructional leader. Instead, it is more about different teachers discussing different qualities which might at times appear to be at odds with each other. This makes sense because different teachers can have different preferences regarding the way instructional leaders can and should deal with them. This idea will be expanded and discussed in detail in the next chapter.

4.5.2.3 Collegiality

The next category discussed by teachers was *collegiality*. One of the codes that this category comprises of is *trust*. According to Teacher 1, “There will always be frameworks, rubrics and systems for the administration to follow, but at the end of the day, they must trust the person who is going into the class”. Teacher 3 was of a similar opinion. He stated that “The relation between the administration and the teachers, or any kind of administration and employees, should be positive and based on trust. When you give me this kind of trust, you will push me to improve my performance”. Teacher 8 expressed the very same belief as Teacher 3:

The most important thing that I can think of [for the administration] is to develop a relationship of trust with the teachers. Based upon that trust, I would like to do anything, and I’m sure that once you establish the trust, all the teachers will be willing to do everything that is required of them.

The purpose of the administration trusting the teachers and the teachers trusting the administration is not just to make someone feel good or to address someone's fears about their job. It is directly related to the idea of instructional improvement, as will be discussed in the next chapter with reference to literature.

Other codes that made up the category of *collegiality* are *respect*, *collaboration* and *familiarity with observers*. In Teacher 9's words, "The goldmine of any institution, or college, or university, school, are the teachers", and therefore, they should be treated with respect and they should be valued as the ones who are doing the actual thing that an educational organization says it does: teach. The way supervisory systems are implemented have a major impact on how teachers feel they are being treated. For example, if a teacher is doing her/his job in the best way she/he can and their performance is satisfying all the needs of their institution perfectly, continued implementation of fault-finding and inspectional supervisory systems could demotivate the teachers. Teacher 8 said:

At times I think of calling it a day because I feel like after 27 years of teaching I still need to establish my integrity and tell them that I am honest and professional. All they are ever worried about is whether I show up in class on time and that I stay in my class till the end of the day. Why is that?

Teacher 4 opined that he wanted to be a participant in the supervisory system. However, the system should not disenfranchise the teachers and instead should make them feel that they are partners in a process. He stated:

You go on observing the people that you've hired but it must be done in a way that is conducive towards their improvement and development instead of discouraging them and making them feel as if they don't know anything.

One way to make the teachers feel like they are partners is for instructional leaders to be willing to work together with teachers for improvement, instead of just giving them a list of faults observed in class and asking them to 'improve' on those points. "It should be a two-way process", in the words of Teacher 5. In addition, both Teacher 5 and

Teacher 2 highlighted another point which they said helps to make the supervisory process more rewarding: *familiarity with observers*. If the teacher and the instructional leader know each other personally, it makes it easier for teachers to engage themselves in the steps of the observation cycle. It also goes a long way in making the whole process less adversarial. Teacher 5 said that he was much more at ease when he was familiar with the instructional leaders:

I felt more comfortable during observations, in the sense that it was not the first time that the instructional leaders were visiting our classrooms. They kept coming in and they knew the teacher and the way he taught, and how the students behaved.

The code *using educational terms & avoiding managerial nomenclature* is interesting in that it is believed that by merely changing the terms that are used in supervisory jargon would change things for the better. Compared to what was expressed about other codes/categories, this was a minority view expressed only by one participant. Nevertheless, it is significant because it discusses an issue which has been in debate in teacher supervision literature. Teacher 4 said that using terms such as 'teacher support session' and 'class visit' instead of more official terms such as evaluation session and formal observation would be better. This is an important point and it will be picked up in the next chapter.

The teachers also spoke of *blame-free and non-penalizing support*. According to Teacher 1 and Teacher 9, teachers must be given the opportunity to learn and solicit help from instructional leaders without fear of being considered incompetent. Teacher 1 expressed his feelings on this topic in detail. At one point, he said:

You can have effective teachers who will give you effective teaching without swords hanging over their heads, without worrying that something is going to happen to them. Even when teachers are not performing up to the standard expected by the educational organization, an instructional leader should get them aside and tell them, 'How can we work together for improvement...How can I help?' Instead of saying 'I'm going to take your salary away, you're going to lose a holiday, you are going to lose your job, or you'll get a final warning.'

Teacher 9 also articulated his opinion that instructional leaders should support teachers without threatening them. According to him, the best way for instructional leaders to help teachers is by “showing them what’s good and how to do it, and how to avoid what’s bad...But not to blame them”.

In all of the codes under the category of *collegiality*, teachers are articulating their beliefs and preferences about the kinds of supervisory models that place both the teacher and the instructional leader in a position of parity.

4.5.2.4 Accountability

The next category in this theme was *accountability*, in that instructional leaders and the administration have the right to monitor teachers’ efforts at instructional improvement. The participants articulated their belief that although instructional leaders should not adopt an Orwellian approach by looking over the teachers’ shoulders all the time, there is still the need for some sort of monitoring of teachers’ professional development activities. They did not advocate a laissez-faire approach to instructional leadership because that would deprive instructional leaders of the opportunity to work with teachers for instructional improvement. Teachers and instructional leaders are not the only or even the most important stakeholders in a teacher/instructional leader relationship. All of the supervisory activities are aimed at benefitting the students, who are the most important stakeholders in a supervisory cycle, even though they are not involved in it. If ever there is a situation where it is felt that a teacher is not fulfilling his/her commitment of providing quality education, supervisory intervention should be initiated, which could be directive if need be. Refusal to initiate supervisory intervention would be an injustice for the students of teachers who are in need of it. The participants of the current study agreed with this view. According to Teacher 11:

There is no accountability on behalf of the teachers to the Professional Development Unit or to the University more generally. I mean, nobody enters or asks about what’s happening in my classroom from one formal observation to the next, which is an annual occurrence. Teachers should be held accountable for their responsibilities. As a teacher, you should be able to explain the results of what’s happening in your class.

Teacher 5 stated:

At the end of the supervisory cycle, instructional leaders can say to teachers: "We gave you a free hand to work on your professional development, now tell us what you have done". There doesn't necessarily have to be a written report. Teachers can have a face-to-face interview with the instructional leaders. If instructional leaders give full freedom to the teachers and not follow up in any way, they may not do anything about their professional development. If instructional leaders find that teachers haven't done anything at all, then you can always initiate supervisory intervention.

Teacher 7 wanted instructional leaders to encourage teachers to adopt a reflective approach. He stated:

Instructional leaders should encourage teachers to have a log where they keep a record of the number of hours they have spent with colleagues while they are teaching. I mean, not necessarily reporting on the details of the specific lesson, but perhaps at the end they would put in bullet point form what they have learned from observing these teachers, so that it is not going to be threatening to the teachers being observed. Whenever teachers engage in any developmental activity, they should write a page about how they benefited them and how they feel they have grown.

However, at times, instructional leaders have to initiate directive supervision and even enforce the policies of the educational institution. Teacher 7 and Teacher 11 agreed with this and emphasized the importance of instructional leaders following up with teachers and working together with them. Teacher 7 discussed formal and informal observations conducted by instructional leaders and how instructional leaders should feed teachers back on how they could bring about improvement in their teaching process. He further stated that if a teacher refuses to heed the instructional leader's suggestions regarding serious points, he should be reminded of his responsibilities. In his words:

The instructional leader would keep a log of this [suggestions given during post-observation conferences] and if he feels that the teacher is totally not responding to his suggestions, then he could perhaps alert the teacher that they've made note that there hasn't been any improvement. There could be a verbal warning. Over time,

there could be consequences for the teacher because the instructional leader has to enforce organizational policies.

There might appear to be some tension and contradiction in the meaning conveyed by teachers regarding the category of *accountability* and the code *blame-free and non-penalizing support*, which was discussed under the category of *collegiality*. It appears that in the latter, teachers are demanding that there should be no threat of being blamed or penalized in any way, while in the former, *accountability*, teachers are arguing for the opposite: that there should be consequences for teachers if they are not improving. In fact, there is no contradiction. In the category of *blame-free and non-penalizing support*, teachers were expressing their expectations regarding the initial approach of a supervisory system: that it should be based on giving teachers the chance to seek help and have candid and open dialogue with instructional leaders without being threatened or penalized in any way. However, this approach cannot be adopted for all the teachers all the time. As indicated in the discussion under *accountability*, the participants made it clear that if a teacher is not performing according to what is expected by an educational organization despite repeated efforts by instructional leaders to support that teacher, it becomes imperative on instructional leaders to initiate either directive supervisory intervention or to enforce organizational policy, whether that entails issuing a formal warning letter or a one to one meeting with the principal or academic coordinator. Otherwise, they will be neglecting their responsibility to the educational organization and the most important stakeholders of any teaching situation: the students. The students should not be allowed to suffer educationally just because an instructional leader is afraid of offending a teacher who refuses to bring about any change in their teaching.

4.5.2.5 Encouragement

The next category discussed by the teachers was *encouragement*. Teachers were aware that instructional leaders are required to request and remind teachers regarding instructional improvement. However, these reminders should not always come in the form of warning letters or a reduced mark on an evaluation form. Encouragement is in itself a very good way of pushing teachers to improve their teaching practice. Teachers 2,3,4,5,6,7,8 and 9 all agreed on this point. In the words of Teacher 9, “Teachers who

are encouraged and supported by the administration would have a positive attitude and they will come to the classroom happy to do their job". One way to encourage teachers is to acknowledge and appreciate good teaching practice observed during class visits. Many of the participants mentioned that when instructional leaders noticed and gave positive feedback on their teaching, it motivated them to work harder on their teaching.

4.5.2.6 Holistic View of Pedagogy

The next category discussed by teachers was about the instructional leaders adopting a *holistic view of pedagogy*, meaning that instructional leaders should not hold a very narrow view of 'good' teaching which is only based on a very limited number of observable and quantifiable actions. Educational organizations generally have a set of guidelines and rubrics that the instructional leaders are required to follow, which are presumed to be based on good teaching practice. The participants of the current study argued that an organization's supervisory policies are not value free; they reflect the beliefs of the organization and the people who are involved in drafting them. The participants of the current study wanted the instructional leaders to stop *obsessing over minutiae* and adopt a *holistic view of pedagogy*. Teacher 3 spoke of an incident where an instructional leader noted a very minor issue and thought it fit to mention it in the post-observation written report:

One of the observers told me something about the seating plan of my students, that the chair of one of the students was a little back, by around 2 inches or something, and he commented that perhaps the student's understanding was low because of these 2 inches. Seriously it did happen! I was very bothered and annoyed because this is not scientific. This is not something that has any kind of theoretical ground.

Teacher 4 also referred to a post-observation conference where his observer kept arguing about a small point, and this bothered Teacher 4 very much. He said he was frustrated because "it was a minor thing that was blown out of proportion". Perhaps some instructional leaders feel under pressure to find faults during classroom observations. The concern should be to engage teachers in dialogue about things that affect student learning. As Teacher 8 said, "When you come with this idea that you have to find problems and faults in trivial things, then probably you can't target things that

really matter”. It can be seen that both Teachers 4 and 8 are calling for a *departure from a faultfinding model*.

4.5.2.7 Transparency

Teacher 9 and Teacher 11 highlighted the importance of *transparency* in the supervisory cycle. There should not be an atmosphere of secrecy and all instruments, rating scales, rubrics and evaluation criteria should be communicated to the teachers. This will help build trust between teachers and instructional leaders.

4.6 Differences and Mutual Exclusivity in Teachers’ Priorities

One of the things that was interesting about the findings is how different the priorities of different participants were. It would have been simple and straightforward if it were only a question of accumulating a list of things teachers wanted in an ideal supervisory system. What makes things complicated is the fact that at times, teachers’ priorities are contradictory and mutually exclusive. For example, some teachers believe in the value of workshops while others do not attach the same importance to them; one participant wants in-house trainers, while another wants external trainers; some participants view involvement from the administration as intrusive, while others see it as a necessary ‘push’ that will motivate them to get involved in PD activities. This will be a major discussion point in the next chapter in which I will outline how the difference in priorities highlights the need for a differentiated supervisory system. For example, a cursory look at the list of codes discussed by individual participants illustrates this point:

No.	Codes	References
1	Flexibility of the system vs rigidity	22
2	Accountability	6
3	Formal observations	6
4	Freedom for engaging in different PD activities	2
5	Peer to peer interaction\Peer observation	2
6	Encouragement from administartion	1
7	Feedback from instructional leaders\Detailed	1
8	Feedback from instructional leaders\Robust	1
9	Peer to peer interaction\Peer monitoring	1
10	Professional qualities of instructional leaders\Experience	1

Table 5: Codes discussed by Teacher 7

It can be seen here that although Teacher 7 (Table 5) discussed a total of ten different codes, the code *flexibility of the system vs rigidity* dominated his discussion. In fact, the dominant code has more references (22) than all the other nine combined (21).

No.	Codes	References
1	Incorporating teacher feedback	8
2	Discussion groups	2
3	Workshops	2
4	Acknowledgement of good teaching practice	1
5	Multiple PD options and opportunities	1
6	PD courses	1
7	Peer to peer interaction\Being mentored	1
8	Professional qualities of instructional leaders\Content knowledge & expertise	1
9	Professional qualities of instructional leaders\Experience	1

Table 6: Codes discussed by Teacher 6

Similarly, Teacher 6's discussion (Table 6) contained many more references to the code *incorporating teacher feedback* than the other codes. Of the nine different codes discussed by him, six were mentioned only once while the dominant code of *incorporating teacher feedback* was mentioned eight times.

No.	Node	References
1	Tier based developmental system	8
2	Peer to peer interaction\Being mentored	2
3	Peer to peer interaction\Peer observation	2
4	Personal qualities of instructional leaders\Social skills	2
5	Workshops	2
6	Acknowledgement of good teaching practice	1
7	Familiarity with observers	1
8	Flexibility of the system vs rigidity	1
9	PD courses	1
10	Pre-observation meeting	1
11	Respect	1

Table 7: Codes discussed by Teacher 2

Teacher 2 (Table 7), who was the most experienced teacher with 32 years of experience, had his own priority, as shown in Table 6, which was that more experienced teachers should not be subjected to the same PD activities as novice teachers.

If we look at the number of references by categories, we see a similar trend. For example, observe the number of references for the category *developing ELT knowledge individually* in figure 9:

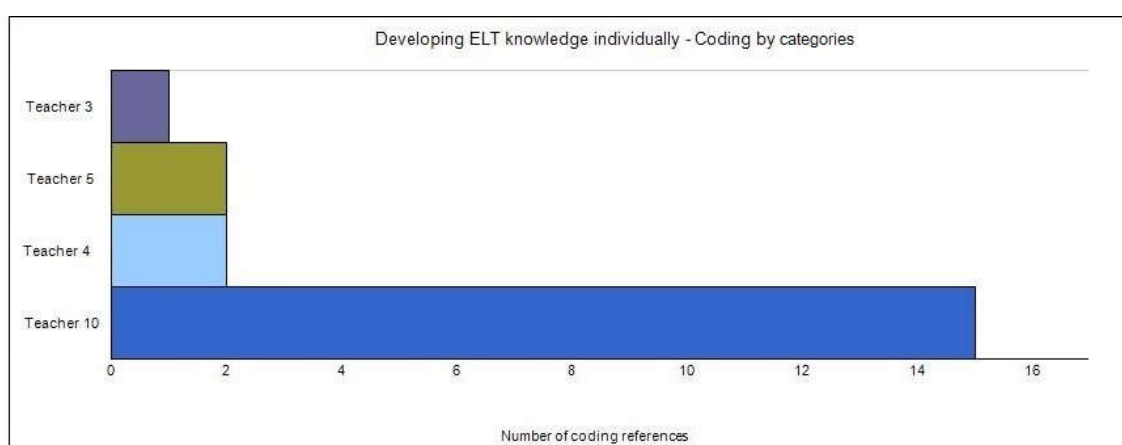


Figure 9

As can be seen from the graph in figure 9, more importance was attached to the category of *developing ELT knowledge individually* by Teacher 10 than other participants, who either did not mention it at all or if they did, they did not dwell on it as much as Teacher 10. The same point is manifest in figure 10 below, which is about the category *professional qualities of instructional leaders*:

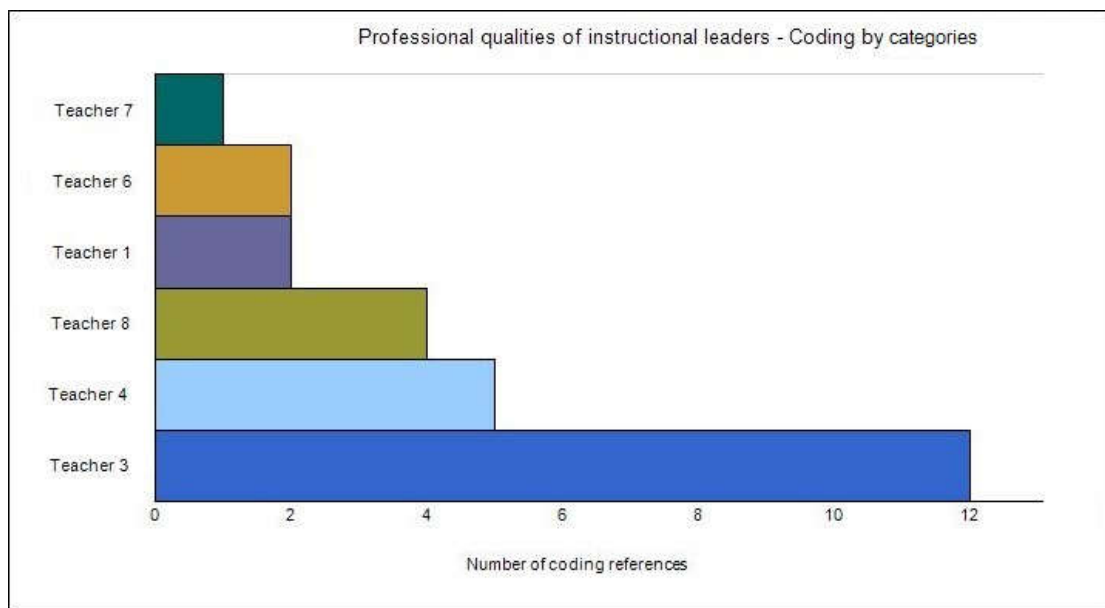


Figure 10

Once again, it can be seen that one participant (Teacher 3 in this case) has a lot more to say about *professional qualities of instructional leaders* than others. It should be noted here that the number of codes and references are only part of the picture. I did not set out to count the number of times each participant will mention each code so I could measure its importance. The purpose of discussing these numbers here is only to map the flow of conversation and provide an accurate picture of how different participants' conversation kept revolving around certain ideas. Frequency of references is being interpreted cautiously as a "proxy for significance" (Vaismoradi, Turunen & Bondas, 2013, p.404).

Based on the idea of different priorities, I will discuss differentiated and developmental supervision in the next chapter. Another focal point which will be threaded in the discussion about the need for a differentiated supervisory system is the extent to which a teacher's place in his professional life cycle helps form his opinions and priorities.

4.7 Summary

In this chapter, I have reported the findings of the study. I investigated teachers' ideas regarding how they want to be supervised. This was done via semi-structured interviews. Analysis of the interview data led to the development of two themes under which teachers articulated their ideas and expectations from supervisory practices. Under the first theme, *the professional aspect*, teachers spoke about activities and practices directly related to classroom practice whereas the second theme, *the social aspect*, covers concepts which are related to the way the organization deals with teachers. The description of the themes was also complemented by the analysis of all the documents used in the supervisory cycle. The main ideas gathered from document analysis were that the organization has described all the steps, activities and criteria in detail for the teachers' support and convenience. However, document analysis also confirmed a main topic of discussion mentioned by many of the participants: that evaluation is inextricably linked with development and there is too much of an evaluative aspect that looms large throughout the supervisory cycle, even in activities that are supposed to be purely developmental. Furthermore, I also drew attention to the fact that although there was some level of commonality in teachers' beliefs and ideas under both the themes, what was crucial was that there was also a level of disparity in their priorities and their expectations regarding the overall approach of the supervisory system. This led to the idea that a blanket supervisory system that engages all the teachers in the same supervisory practices might not address the needs of the teachers as well as a tier-based supervisory system that places teachers in different streams according to their experience, expertise, level of abstraction and some other factors.

In the next chapter, I will attempt to locate the findings in the context of wider debates in the field of teacher supervision.

Chapter Five

Discussion

5.1 Overview

The reason I decided to conduct this study was straightforward. Having worked as a classroom observer and teacher developer, I became aware of the issue of tension between teachers and supervisors, and teachers' dissatisfaction with supervisory practices. I soon realized after reviewing teacher supervision literature that this was in line with what other researchers have found in different contexts (Aubusson, Steele, Dinham, & Brady, 2007; Borich, 1994; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Kilbourn, Keating, Murray, & Ross, 2005). Many authors have even characterized teacher supervision as being unproductive, threatening, unfair, and inconsistent (Danielson, 2001; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Duke & Stiggins, 1990; Scriven, 1990; Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995; Stronge, 1997; Stronge & Tucker, 2003).

Having heard teachers complain about the inadequacy of the supervisory practices for years, and having tried different methods for addressing their concerns, I decided to 'give the floor' to the teachers and ask them what they wanted and expected from supervisory systems by conducting an in-depth study. I wanted to get to the root of the problem and determine what the 'customers' themselves wanted by asking them questions about practical ways of finding solutions for their concerns and how they themselves would solve these issues if they were put in charge. The intention was to hear the teacher voice and understand how their views have been shaped by their experience of supervision. This understanding can then be a guide when designing or adapting a supervisory system. Involving teachers in the design of supervisory programs/practices might enable supervisors to create 'buy-in' among teachers (Bailey, 2007).

I will now answer the research questions that framed this study one by one.

5.2.1 Research Question One: What is the teacher perspective on how they want to be supervised?

After gathering teachers' ideas about what they want and expect from supervisory practices, it became clear that there were some general points which were highlighted by many of the participants. These points have been described in detail in the previous chapter. Many of the ideas mentioned by teachers have been discussed in teacher supervision literature.

The participants highlighted the importance of the content knowledge and expertise of instructional leaders. This resonates with teacher supervision literature where teachers have expressed their views regarding what they want in instructional leaders. As discussed in the literature review, teachers have cited the instructional leaders' *content knowledge and expertise* as a very important factor in different studies conducted in different contexts (Blumberg and Jonas, 1987; Elliott and Calderhead, 1995; Protheroe, 2002; Rehman and Al-Bargi, 2014; Valentine and Prater, 2011; Zimmerman and Deckert-Pelton, 2003). A similar idea highlighted by one of the participants was the importance of the academic qualifications of instructional leaders. Valentine and Prater (2011) found in their study that the principal's education level is associated with teachers' perception of the principal's effectiveness. Principals with greater levels of formal preparation focusing on the role of a principal were perceived as more capable leaders. As principals' educational level increased, so did the teachers' perceptions of their principals' competence (Valentine & Prater, 2011). There is a fine distinction between the two ideas being discussed here. Instructional leaders' content knowledge and expertise is an indication of their competence, whereas demanding that instructional leaders should have academic qualifications directly related to instructional leadership is more about the social capital conferred by qualifications that imply competence. Being a competent and expert instructional leader is not a direct corollary of having such qualifications. However, these qualifications do affect the way teachers approach supervisory interaction, thereby indicating that the benefits of academic qualifications directly related to instructional leadership are twofold: 1) they can help the

instructional leaders develop their repertoire and help them explore more ways of supporting teachers; 2) they have social capital attached to them in that they can persuade teachers to approach supervisory practices with a more participatory and less adversarial attitude by fostering a belief in teachers that the expertise of instructional leaders will confer benefits on them as supervisees.

The views of the participants regarding classroom observations were very similar to views expressed by teachers in Robles's (2007) qualitative study. He interviewed fourteen veteran teachers to examine their perspectives on evaluation and how they want to be evaluated. He found that the participants wanted the evaluators to visit their classes more often and conduct scheduled and unscheduled observations. The participants in Robles's study expressed their belief that with frequent scheduled and unscheduled observations, evaluators would get a clear picture of what is going on in their classes on an everyday basis. They wanted the evaluators to see them in a 'regular' lesson as opposed to an 'over prepared' lesson. The only difference between the ideas of the participants of the current study and the ideas of the teachers interviewed by Robles (2007) is that while the participants of the current study wanted to have more frequent observations, they wanted them to be informal, whereas Robles's participants wanted to be observed more frequently both formally and informally.

However, classroom observations should be only part of the evaluative framework and not the main or only source, as such an approach "is not a sufficient means of evaluating the full range of important teaching responsibilities" (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1996, p. 25). Some of the participants in the current study stated that they wanted the administration to adopt a holistic view of pedagogy and not reformulate teaching as an easily observable set of behaviours such as smiling at the students and writing the objectives on the board (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). The administration should look at the bigger picture by taking into consideration all the factors that are part of a teacher's professional life. This point was also highlighted by the participants in a national survey of kindergarten to grade six teachers in the United States of America. Most of the participants wanted evaluations of their performance to consider "overall

teaching performance, subject matter knowledge, classroom management, instructional techniques, helping students achieve, and unique teaching demands” (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1996, p.25). If supervisors focus solely on “superficial and readily noted criteria” (Pizzi, 2009) - which at times are not even related to teaching directly, for example, the teacher’s dress and the safety of the classroom (Kennedy, 2005) - then Goldhammer’s claim would appear to be credible when he argues that supervisors generally lack a sophisticated and unique instructional approach that goes beyond superficialities (as cited in Glanz, 2007). The participants in the current study wanted the supervisors to stop obsessing over minutiae because the assumption that all the steps of a clinical model of supervision should be present in each and every class every day is questionable (Sahakian & Stockton, 1996).

The ideas of discussion with instructional leaders and discussion groups were also highlighted by the participants. This is in line with the findings of the study conducted by Blase and Blase (1999). They conducted a qualitative study to determine the characteristics of school principals that positively influence classroom teaching and the effects which those characteristics have on classroom instruction. The data collected from more than 800 teachers were collapsed under two major themes, the first of which was *talking with teachers to promote reflection* (e.g., making suggestions, giving feedback). Farrell (2014) also noted that collaborative group discussions can help teachers maintain and develop their commitment and enthusiasm when they hit a ‘plateau’ in their mid-careers. Teachers’ views on discussion in this study could be indicative of a wider issue. It is not simply a case of talking to instructional leaders or administrators and other teachers; rather, it is more about engaging in dialogue across all strata of the organization to help develop a common understanding of good practice. By ensuring good communication between teachers, instructional leaders and the administration, a shared understanding of good teaching practice can be developed, which will be fluid and evolving based on the constant dialogue between all parties involved. The administration could put their requirements down on paper through documents such as observation instruments, rubrics and faculty handbooks; the instructional leaders implement the ideas outlined in these documents and listen to the

teachers' input and relay teachers' suggestions and concerns to the administration, who would then make changes in the policy documents if necessary. It would be a cyclical process that would be constantly evolving, and the foundation upon which this process stands is discussion. Such a process can transform a supervisory system and will save it from becoming outdated or unrealistic. It would be a two-way process. It will not merely be a system whereby teachers are handing in a list of changes to the instructional leaders and the administration and demanding that new measures be implemented. The instructional leaders and the administration would also be equal partners in the process and will do their part to engage in dialogue with the teachers to develop a shared understanding of good practice. Teacher 7 was more vocal on this topic than the other participants of this study. He spoke at length about the importance of the administration listening to the teachers and making changes based on their feedback as no system can be considered to be 'complete' at any given time. The administration can motivate and empower teachers by giving them an 'active role' in the design and implementation of supervisory instruments and procedures (Murdoch, 2000).

As mentioned earlier, there were some general points which were highlighted by many of the participants. Preparing a list of ideas regarding best practices in instructional leadership from the viewpoint of teachers can help us develop a better understanding of how to work on improving supervisory practices. However, more significantly, it became clear that every participant had his own list of priorities which was often radically different from those of the other participants. The conversation of individual participants revolved around one or two basic ideas that were important to them and influenced their overall view of supervision. As can be seen in the graphs and bar charts at the end of the last chapter (section 4.6), an idea that was important to one teacher and dominated his discussion was not important to the other participants, many of whom did not even mention it at all during their interviews. In fact, as mentioned earlier, at times their preferences were mutually exclusive. Teachers' tendency to attach importance to particular aspects of development and evaluation indicates that a 'blanket' supervisory system that treats all teachers the same regardless of their skills, experience, ability,

priorities and learning styles will not address the needs of many of the teachers in the context of the current study.

To address the range of experience and development needs of teachers, a supervisory system needs to be differentiated and have 'streams' that teachers can follow according to their needs. A supervisory system based on one stream can work in certain contexts; for example, a school that has a homogeneous group of teachers from the same (or similar) socio-economic backgrounds who have roughly the same number of years of experience and there is not too wide a gap in their ages. However, in a context like the setting of the current study, where you have teachers in their 20s all the way to teachers in their 60s, such a single-stream supervisory system would have its limitations. The disparity is not just in age but also in the number of years of experience. There are teachers who have been in the field for less than 5 years on one end of the spectrum and teachers who have been in the field for more than 30 years on the other end of the spectrum. In addition, they all come from different educational and national backgrounds. Therefore, it should come as no surprise that they all have different expectations and needs regarding supervisory practices. The fact that the participants in the current study expressed needs and expectations that were so different from each other confirms what has been found in research on teacher growth and development: Professional learning opportunities should take into account the preferences of the teachers. The central factors when designing a plan for teachers are the learning needs of the target audience (Rinaldi, 2007). In the teachers' biographic information table in the methodology section, it can be seen that there are differences among participant teachers in age, experience, level of education and national and educational background. In such a context, a supervisory system that provides for the needs of different teachers of different cognitive and experiential levels is more suitable, such as Glickman's Developmental Supervision (2010) or Glatthorn's Differentiated Supervision (1997). One of these systems, or a blend of these systems, would provide for the needs of teachers with different learning styles and preferences, which could be shaped by different factors at different stages in their professional lives. As Zepeda states, "Teachers have unique needs across the career continuum" (2012, p.55). According to

Danielson and McGreal (2000), "Teacher evaluation should provide opportunities for teachers at different stages (of their careers) to be involved in different processes and activities" (p.78).

To sum up, different organizations all over the world have their own requirements which are dictated by contextual factors such as student demographics, societal needs, and state or federal government mandates and they put in place supervisory systems to ensure that the students are provided quality education. Similarly, teachers have their own personalities and professional personas which are continually evolving. It is important that teachers and administrators negotiate with each other on how to resolve the tension regarding what the teachers want from the organization and what the organization wants from teachers. Adopting a multi-tiered or multi-streamed supervisory system could help in achieving this goal, as indicated by the current study, in which different teachers articulated their needs, which were different and at times mutually exclusive.

5.2.2 Research Question Two: What factors should instructional leaders consider when making decisions regarding teachers' professional development and evaluation?

Once the idea of using a multi-stream supervisory system is considered, the question of the supervisor's role in determining which stream each teacher should take becomes important. How does a supervisor make this decision and what are the factors that will influence his/her decision?

The concept of professional life cycles is related to the idea of multi-stream supervisory systems. As is evident from the literature on professional life-cycles described in the literature review, extensive research conducted by Huberman, Day et al., Fessler and others has shown that there are general trends that are manifest in teachers at different stages in their career. Fessler, in particular, has described different elements connected to the workplace (e.g. regulations, management style, social expectations) and to

teachers' personal lives (e.g. family, cumulative life experiences, individual disposition) that affect teachers at different stages in their careers and how a teacher's professional identity is constructed as a result of these elements. These are the elements that led to the participants in the current study to have diverse views on what is needed and required from supervisory systems. When Teachers 1, 2 and 8 spoke about tier-based supervisory systems and that they should not be treated like the other teachers, it can be seen that their views are affected by their cumulative life experiences and possibly individual dispositions. Furthermore, teachers who generally expressed dissatisfaction with supervisory activities (such as Teacher 1, 2, 8, 10 and to a lesser extent Teachers 5, 7 and 11) could possibly be affected by one of two reasons: either they had not received individualized support, or they could have hit a 'plateau' in their professional lives. One of the most important things to remember about theories of professional life cycles is that they are not linear and different factors will not necessarily affect teachers in the same way at different stages in their career. As Fessler and Christensen noted, there is "a dynamic ebb and flow [and] teachers move in and out of stages in response to influences from personal and organizational dimensions" (cited in Farrell, 2014, p. 506). Teachers can bypass a particular phase or revert to a phase that they have experienced earlier in their career (Farrell, 2014). Teachers' progression through their professional life cycle is filled with "plateaus, discontinuities, regressions, spurts, and dead ends" (Huberman, 1995, p. 196). One manifestation of this could be seen in the contrast in the views of Teacher 9 and Teacher 8. Although they are the same age (52), their views on the usefulness of supervisory practices are diametrically opposed to each other. Teacher 9 expressed his belief that he considers supervisory practices to be beneficial for his professional development, whereas Teacher 8 considered them to be generally of very little value. Instead, Teacher 8 appeared to be pre-occupied with his concerns regarding the more inspectional elements of the supervisory system. They are operating on different levels in their professional lives and have very different needs. It would be wrong to lump them together just because they happen to be of the same age. One can try and account for the difference in their views by considering not their age but their years of experience - Teacher 8 has taught for 27 years and Teacher 9 for 15 years. However, trying to group teachers together by years of experience would also

have its problems when we consider Teacher 10, who has taught for 10 years but his views on the benefits of supervisory practices are almost identical to the views of teachers who have taught for more than 30 years. Therefore, one should view the identification of phases and sequences, as Huberman has suggested, 'gingerly' (Woodward, 2013) as being descriptive rather than normative. Teachers have their own "idiosyncratic biography" (Sikes, 1985, p. 29) and their redefinition or re-ordering of interests, commitments and attitudes is frequently caused by events and experiences that are not directly connected with their work situations. As a result, supervisors should try to keep an open mind and consider all the factors that can possibly affect teachers' professional lives. Instead of forcing a blanket supervisory system on all teachers, the focus should be to provide personalized and individualized support systems (Lynn, 2002). This is crucial because teachers never arrive at a fixed identity but are always developing them (Britzman, 1992; Danielewicz, 2001, cited in Johnston, 2015). Huberman's (1989) work on professional life cycles also tells us the same thing: Teachers at different stages in their careers have different outlooks on their professional lives. Fessler's Teacher Career Cycle Model outlines eight career stages based on the influence of different factors on a teacher's personal and professional life. Teachers at these different stages will have different needs, and it would be unreasonable to adopt the same approach to deal with a teacher who is in the pre-service stage and another teacher who is in the career wind-down stage in Fessler's Model. The example cited by Sparks & Loucks-Horsley (1989) fits the participants of the current study perfectly. They state that activities and practices that provide practical classroom management assistance for a 22-year-old beginning teacher would be inappropriate for an experienced teacher who is close to retirement. Similarly, supervisory practices that could benefit Teacher 4 (30 years old with 6 years of experience) and Teacher 5 (33 years old with 8 years of experience) might not be appropriate for Teacher 1 (60 years old with 30 years of experience), Teacher 2 (60 years old with 32 years of experience) and Teacher 8 (52 years old with 25 years of experience). This is simply because the "circumstances most suitable for one person's professional development may be quite different from those that promote another individual's growth" (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1989, p.6).

In multi-stream systems, supervisors have the crucial role of selecting a developmental and evaluative supervisory stream for teachers. They will be in a better position to do so when they draw upon the research on professional life cycles. A good example here would be to analyse Teacher 2's discussion about the use of a directive supervisory approach. Teacher 2 mentioned some attributes he believed a good teacher should have. When asked if the current supervisory system helped him achieve these attributes, he said it did not. However, he said not all teachers are the same and that there are some who try to get away with putting in the minimum of effort in the teaching process. In their case, he said, a more directive system would probably force them to change their style and attitude towards teaching. When asked if he would want to be supervised in such a way, he said it would be "frivolous and unnecessary" because he does not need someone breathing down his neck to convince him to put in his best efforts. Teacher 2 is articulating his belief that at times, there is a need to 'push' some teachers who are not putting in enough effort. However, he does not want himself to get that very same 'push'. This could be for a variety of reasons. Perhaps Teacher 2 really has attained a level of development which makes it unnecessary for him to be forced to change his style. After all, he has got (as he claims) three decades of exposure to supervisory activities and procedures, and through cumulative effort and experience he has perfected a style of teaching which he can adapt for every situation. Conversely, the reason could be that his professional identity has calcified to a degree that he is resistant to change, even when it is required. It is here that the importance of the supervisor's role becomes apparent. He or she will not just take a teacher's word on what that teacher wants. Although teachers should be allowed to have a voice regarding what they say they want and need from supervisory practices, it is important to remember that teachers are not the final arbiters of what practices they should or should not be part of. That is a decision that has to be made after taking into account many factors, such as organizational or state/province level legal requirements and the needs of the students. When a teacher is critical of supervisory intervention or resistant to change, the supervisor should ask her/himself: Does this teacher have real concerns that need to be addressed or are they just engaging in a bout of academic whining? As Waintroob (1995) states, the teachers who deny their own need for remediation and

professional development are often the ones who need it the most. She further states that “inevitably, the non-remediable teacher’s denial that he or she has a problem is accompanied by an attack on the credibility, the competence, or integrity of the administrator” (cited in Pizzi, 2009, p.52). Teachers’ attitudes regarding their professional remediation can potentially be a barrier to effective evaluation (Pizzi, 2009). As mentioned earlier, Teacher 2’s attitude can be a result of the fact that he really does not *need* the kind of support being provided by the supervisory practices, or perhaps his attitude is characteristic of what Hoerr (1998) outlined: that marginal or incompetent teachers tend to criticize others while outstanding teachers tend to be self-evaluating regardless of what system of evaluation is in place.

Teachers should be allowed to provide input, to some extent, regarding the supervisory stream and activities that they will be part of. In addition, different professional and personal variables of teachers will also be taken into account. As discussed earlier, the most crucial part in selecting a differentiated model is selecting a supervisor who is capable of gauging a teacher’s level of competence and making a judgement about what kind of support is required for the teacher. This will, of course, be discussed with the teacher, but there does not necessarily have to be total agreement about this. Just because a teacher insists that he or she should be allowed to self-direct their professional development does not mean that the supervisor will yield to this demand, especially if it has been reported through a number of different sources (e.g. classroom observations, parents’ complaints, reports from building supervisors.) that there is a serious need of directive supervisory intervention. The real stakeholders in an educational setting are the students, and it is the job of the educational organization to make sure that the students are provided with quality education. Nevertheless, giving teachers more freedom in selecting their professional development activities and tracks, and adopting a more collegial approach, will ultimately benefit the students. Instructional leaders should work hard on creating a more collegial relation with the teachers because it ultimately leads to more productive teacher/instructional leader interaction, which, in turn, leads to instructional improvement (Breedlove, 2011; Bulach, Boothe, & Pickett, 1998; Davis, Pool, and Mits-Cash, 2000; Kelly, 2006; Milanowski and Heneman

III, 2001; Wang and Day, 2002; Welsh-Treglia, 2002; Zimmerman & Deckert-Pelton, 2003).

If a supervisor is aware of the debates in the literature on professional life cycles, they would perhaps consider using different approaches with teachers in different stages of their professional lives. Teacher 3 said at one point:

My experience and my understanding of the observation system is getting better. The first time when I was observed in my home country it was hell because I was focusing on something and the observer was focusing on something else. I started to learn what observations meant, the points that I should focus on, and in subsequent observations I got better marks.

Differentiated models provide different streams for teachers with different levels of abstraction; awareness of professional life cycles literature provides supervisors with a stronger base of knowledge regarding how to deal with teachers in each stream by taking into account many different variables in different stages of their professional and personal lives. Using Teacher 3's above mentioned quote as a reference point, it would appear from at least what he himself is saying that he is not a novice teacher. He is not a veteran teacher either because he is too young for that. A supervisor working in a three or four streamed supervisory system would place him in the 'middle' stream between a 'beginning teacher' stream and a 'veteran/expert/experienced' teacher stream. There will be activities and procedures for Teacher 3 in this middle stream as outlined in the documentation of the supervisory system. However, by drawing on the professional life cycles literature, the supervisor can go beyond the prescribed activities by developing a deeper understanding of how general trends have been observed in the lives of teachers in the course of their professional lives and as a result, will be in a better position to help individual teachers.

In the setting of the current study, there is clearly a need for a multi-stream system which gives teachers more control over their professional development. This is evident from the way different teachers articulated what they needed and expected from

supervisory systems because their conversation revolved around particular ideas. This is not an indictment of the supervisory system in place at the moment. In the last few years, many changes have been made that take into account teachers' choice and preference in their professional development. For example, at the end of every academic year, teachers set professional development goals for themselves for the coming year. These can sometimes be informed by the recommendations from the supervisors. If a supervisor observes the need for improvement during the course of classroom observations, he or she can recommend that the teacher set developmental goals for that area, especially if it is judged to affect the teacher's performance significantly. In other cases, teachers have full freedom in choosing their goals. The supervision team is moving in the right direction by giving teachers more control over their professional development.

To sum up, when making decisions regarding teachers' professional development and evaluation, supervisors should consider each teacher's case separately. They should consider elements related to the workplace and elements related to teachers' personal lives that shape a teacher's pedagogical outlook. The supervisors will be best placed to make decisions if they are aware of the debates in literature regarding teachers' professional life cycles (Day et al., 2007; Huberman, 1989, 1995; Sikes, 1985; Steffy, Wolfe, Pasch, & Enz, 2000) and multi-tiered supervisory systems (Danielson & McGreal, 2002; Glatthorn, 1997; Glickman et al., 2010).

5.2.3 Research Question Three: How does the performance management role of supervision affect the teacher / supervisor relationship?

Teacher supervision is not just concerned with the creative and positive aspects of helping language teachers achieve their full potential....Supervision also includes less rewarding and rather unpleasant responsibilities, such as providing negative feedback, ensuring that teachers adhere to program policy, and even firing employees if the need arises. (Bailey, 2006, p.5)

In many ways, Bailey's quote above identifies the core reasons behind the difficult nature of the supervisor/supervisee relationship. As has been discussed earlier, the supervisor/supervisee relationship has historically been troublesome. Blumberg (1980) called it a 'private cold war', and his observation still rings true when we see the number of authors who have said similar things in many different contexts down the years (see section 1.1).

The performance management role can affect the teacher/supervisor relationship in many ways, as can be seen in the various quotes from the teachers where they have articulated their beliefs on how it affects them. Teachers 1, 2, 5, 7 and 11, in particular, spoke at length about the serious concerns they have about the effects of an authoritarian and punitive supervisory system. Teacher 1 believed that teachers are overworked because there is a focus on the part of the management to micromanage them. Teacher 5 discussed this issue in more detail. He stated that the insistence on the part of the supervisory team that teachers should engage in a set number of professional development activities - coupled with the threat that failure to do so will lead to a low mark on teachers' annual faculty evaluation report - forces the teachers to worry more about doing the paperwork instead of working honestly and sincerely on their development. Similarly, Teacher 7 stated that if the supervisory team put too much pressure on the teachers, it would have a reverse effect and teachers can potentially resist working towards achieving the goals set by the administration. There is a strong relationship between the implementation of evaluation processes by administrators and the attitudes of the teachers (Welsh-Treglia, 2002). Astor (2005), Kelly (2006) and Kimball (2002) (cited in Breedlove, 2011) also found that the supervisors' actions were partly responsible for teacher attitudes toward the supervisory process. Possibly the most worrying thing that can result from the difficulties inherent in the teacher/supervisor working relationship is that teachers can refuse to grant the supervisors access to their 'teacherhood' (Blumberg & Jonas, 1987), i.e., discuss their teaching philosophies and practices openly and honestly. Teachers will just go through the motions to avoid confrontation and maintain a façade of civility, but the intention will definitely not be to discuss one's pedagogical issues and get advice and guidance. As Bailey states, "No

one benefits (except in the short term) if teachers only *appear* to accept suggestions” (2007, p. 146). In the words of Teacher 7, in such a situation, teachers do not become active participants and they are only concerned with going through the steps of the supervisory cycle.

Another unintended consequence of micromanaging the teachers is that the tendency to quantify and enumerate teachers’ professionalism leads to the development of an “audit culture” (Svensson & Evetts, 2003). Such an audit culture can potentially increase the need for “explicit auditing and accounting” of professional competences and quality control and performance review become reinterpreted as the promotion of professionalism (Evetts, 2012, p. 22). According to Hargreaves and Shirley (cited in Hökkä & Eteläpelto, 2014), accountability, efficacy, and productivity are replacing the culture of trust and professional independence of teachers and educators. The documentary analysis in the previous chapter shows that this is the case in the context of the current study, where even teachers’ development is evaluated (in the wording of an official document of the supervisory team). A balance has to be struck here and the supervisory pendulum should not be allowed to swing from one extreme to another: complete freedom for teachers with a laissez-faire approach versus a system where all that is ever done by instructional leaders is to look for faults during classroom observations and penalize teachers in whatever way they can. The default position of a supervisory system should be that of allowing teachers as much freedom as is possible within the constraints of a particular organization’s policies and allow them to seek help from instructional leaders and mentors. However, just to ensure that students are getting the quality education that they have a right to, instructional leaders should be allowed to follow-up with teachers on a case by case basis.

In discussing the previous two research questions, the adoption of a differentiated supervisory system has been advocated for the setting of the current study. This places the supervisor in the sensitive position of selecting a developmental or even an evaluative stream for teachers. Therefore, the importance of selecting experienced, sagacious and empathetic supervisors becomes even more crucial lest teachers who

are assigned to work in a directive stream should be made to feel that they are being punished for things not related to their professional practice. It would also be important to be clear about the developmental and evaluative aspect. Garman states:

For years clinical supervision scholars have tried to disassociate themselves and their versions from the evaluative function of administrators. Administrators, on the other hand, continue to name their duty and claim that it is really clinical supervision for the purpose of improving instruction. (Garman, 1997, p.233)

As discussed in the literature review, this ambiguity could be unintentional and has surrounded the supervisory practices during the course of implementation, or it could even be intentional. Pulley (1994) has written on the subject of using euphemisms in education for the purpose of making certain issues sound less offensive. As Smyth (1991) has pointed out, when we preach collegiality, collaboration and teacher autonomy but end up imposing clinical supervision on teachers, contradiction becomes apparent. The blurring of lines between development and evaluation is present in the context of the current study. Different participants raised this issue, as can be seen from the category *flexibility and receptivity of the system* and the codes it is comprised of. However, in issues such as these, the teachers' perception alone is not enough. When an idea is expressed by a participant, the origin could be in either perception, implementation or policy (see section 3.3.7 for a detailed discussion on this).

Regarding the issue of "blurring of lines between development and evaluation" (Rehman & AlBargi, 2014), not only did teachers speak about it, but it can also be seen in the documentation. In the document analysis section of the findings chapter (section 4.3), the Development Score Report was discussed. It listed in detail all the developmental activities the teacher had been part of, and each and every one of those activities are evaluated and enumerated. Even the document itself lists 'Evaluation Categories' which will be used to evaluate teachers' development. This is not just a way for the supervision team to keep track of the activities the teachers were involved in. This Professional Development Score Report is part of the Annual Faculty Evaluation Report, which becomes part of the personnel files of the employees. Therefore, it can

be seen that all the developmental activities have somehow been harnessed to contribute in the final personnel evaluation of teachers.

An arrangement like this one does not give the teachers too much leeway. As long as they know that they will face negative consequences (by being given a low score in the Professional Development Score Report, which in turn will bring down their final score on the Annual Faculty Evaluation Report) for not participating in a certain number of workshops and not making a certain number of posts on discussion forums, they will feel under pressure to satisfy the organizational requirements as opposed to being concerned with the real thing: their professional development. It would be useful here to refer back to two quotes from Teachers 5 and 6 about this point discussed under the code *freedom of engaging in different PD activities* in the Findings chapter. They state that forcing teachers to engage in professional development activities could potentially render these activities useless because teachers will not engage in these activities for development but rather just for completing the paperwork which will become part of their personnel evaluation files.

Garman (1986) calls for a clear distinction between developmental supervision and evaluation. If in-class supervision is indeed for developmental purposes, then the challenge of this “awesome mission” (Garman, 1986, p. 155) should be accepted. However, if it is evaluative, then this fact should be communicated clearly and the supervisors who claim to know about effective teaching should be held accountable for their expertise. In her words, “Educational careers are too precious, and people can be seriously hurt” (Garman, 1986, p.155).

The rigid criteria for involvement in a certain number of professional development activities and the punitive measures attached to non-participation create an imbalance in the power relations between the teachers and supervisors. This can affect teachers negatively and they could adopt what Waite (1993) labelled an ‘adversarial role’. In a previous study, Zeichner and Tabachnick (1985) called it the social strategy of unsuccessful strategic redefinition, whereby the teacher and the supervisor bring strong

agendas and the teacher refuses to capitulate (cited in Waite, 1993). In teacher/supervisor interaction, there is always the possibility of disagreement, and “disagreement is always a face-threatening act” (Beebe and Takahashi, 1989, p. 204), even more so for the teacher if there is a power imbalance created by the performance management role of the supervisor.

The focus on the commodification and enumeration of teachers’ professional services for performance management has unwittingly led to the creation of a system whereby the procedures which are supposed to be purely developmental could possibly have negative consequences for teachers by jeopardizing their employment. No supervisory system should be considered to be beyond criticism and dialogue. Even after designing a differentiated supervisory system and selecting expert supervisors who know how to deal with teachers who are in different stages of their professional lives, an avenue for dialogue should be embedded in the system which allows the teachers to at least have a voice and put forward their beliefs.

Chapter Six

Conclusion

6.1 Summary of Findings

This study set out to investigate what teachers wanted from supervisory systems, the factors instructional leaders should consider when making decisions regarding teachers' professional development activities and how the performance management role of supervision affects the supervisor/supervisee working relationship. Data analysis showed that different teachers articulated completely different needs and expectations, which were at times incompatible with the needs of other teachers. This led to the conclusion that a single supervisory system that mandates a single pathway for all the teachers and requires them to engage in the same kind of professional development activities will not address the needs of all the teachers. I made a case for a multi-streamed supervisory system which describes different pathways and evaluative options for different teachers. The decision of which teacher belongs in which stream rests in the hands of the supervisors, and this leads to the second research question, which was about the factors that should be considered by the instructional leaders when making decisions regarding teachers' professional development and evaluation. The literature on professional life cycles provides the answer to this issue. Instructional leaders should consider different variables related to the workplace (e.g. regulations, management style, social expectations) and to teachers' personal lives (e.g. family, cumulative life experiences, individual disposition) to make decisions regarding the supervisory practices the teachers will be part of. Teachers should definitely be given a chance to voice their preferences and their needs. However, the teachers themselves should not have the final word on the kind of activities they will engage in. That is a decision that should be made based on different factors, such as classroom observation reports, student feedback, and teachers' own suggestions. This is to ensure that the organization protects the students' right to quality education. While teachers have their own preferences, the instructional leaders should consider as many avenues of feedback as possible to make sure that teachers get the kind of support that is best for them, not merely what they say they should get. What is best for the teacher will neither

be a top-down imposition nor based on the opinions and whims of the teachers, but will be a negotiated concept and it will be supported by all the avenues of feedback available to the organization.

Lastly, the study showed that the performance management role of the supervisory system affects the supervisor/supervisee working relationship negatively. Both the interview data and the documents analysed indicated that the developmental aspect and activities of the supervisory system were being used for performance management, which changes the way teachers approach and engage in these activities. Briefly stated, the performance management role of the supervisory team is negatively affecting the teachers in many ways and preventing them from gaining a lot of benefit from supervisory practices.

6.2 Recommendations

I anticipate and hope that these findings will be useful for instructional leaders not just in the KSA or Gulf context but all over the world. Human beings are different and they have their own preferences regarding everything. This applies in a supervisor/supervisee context as well. However, there are also many ways in which human beings in different contexts are similar. I have provided detailed and thick description of the findings of the study in the hope that they will resonate with teachers, instructional leaders and administrators in different contexts and they can find some benefit from the results.

Based on the results of the current study, I would make the following three recommendations:

- 1) A three or four tiered differentiated supervisory program should be implemented instead of a blanket supervisory system. Each tier will be geared toward helping teachers with different levels of abstraction and professional competence.

2) Instructional leaders should consider variables related both to the workplace and teachers' personal lives when making decisions regarding which tier they will be a part of. The guidelines provided in literature on professional life cycles should be applied on a case by case basis; they should not be allowed to become procrustean straitjackets which force instructional leaders to place teachers in tiers where they do not belong.

3) The performance management role should be removed from activities that are purely developmental. Performance management should not be made a part of each and every supervisory activity. This leads to the commodification and enumeration of developmental activities and could result in the reconceptualization of increased paperwork as development. When performance management is inextricably part of every supervisory activity, teachers can become preoccupied with fulfilling organizational requirements instead of working on becoming better teachers.

6.3 Limitations of the Study

"If it is worth doing, it is worth doing right"; it is a simple and pithy saying that guides almost everything I do in life. Whether it is a major project I have to work on in my professional context or something trivial, I try and make the best use of my abilities to make it as good as I can. It was the same with this dissertation. I thought about each step long and hard and I feel confident about the findings of the study and how they were arrived at. Having said that, there are two points that I would do differently if I were to conduct the study again. As mentioned earlier (ref. 3.7), I could not interview colleagues from the female campuses because of cultural issues. However, I believe I could have somehow managed to interview some colleagues over the phone or over Skype. In hindsight, I believe there were two factors that led me to conclude that I could not interview colleagues from the female campus: 1) the cultural element and 2) my own limited social contacts. I still believe it would have been very difficult to interview colleagues from the female campus because of the difficulties I faced in arranging to interview colleagues in the men's campus with colleagues who worked not only in the same building as me, but in the same office and had the same schedules as myself. I

had to reschedule some interviews two or three times. Despite all of these factors, I still believe I should have taken the extra trouble because there are many different elements that affect teachers' views and among the more significant of these elements, in my personal opinion, is gender. By interviewing colleagues from the female campuses, I could have had an even more diverse sample.

Another thing that, with the benefit of hindsight, I think I would do differently is regarding the use of at least one more data source to make the findings of the study even more robust. The interview data provided deep insights and was a strong base to draw conclusions from. However, the use of one more data source, document analysis, made it possible to look at the phenomena under investigation from a different angle and thereby allowed me to build a more convincing argument. Taking it one step further, I believe that the addition of at least one more data source would have made it possible to make the findings of the study even more robust. The use of reflective journals by teachers is the first thing that comes to mind, but I chose not to use them even though I did consider the option during the data collection stage. At that time of the year, most of the teachers were very busy and many of them were even working double shifts and asking them to do something extra did not appear to be feasible. Waiting for a non-teaching week or vacation period was also not an option because most teachers travel within or outside the country during these off days to relax after an intensive semester. The use of an open-ended questionnaire appears to be more practical. An open ended questionnaire has the potential to allow participants to articulate a different level of thinking than is possible during an interview and I believe I could have made good use of them.

6.4 Suggestions for Further Research

Building on the contributions of this study, it is suggested that further research be conducted with the aim of implementing the recommendations. Future research should focus on developing or adapting a tier-based supervisory system with the help of feedback from teachers and instructional leaders. Using one or more tier-based systems such as Glickman's Developmental Supervision and Glatthorn's Differentiated

Supervision, focus group meetings and discussion groups should be held to help adapt a tier-based system that addresses the needs of the teachers and at the same time satisfies organizational or state/provincial level requirements. The entire procedure should be documented and analyzed to highlight the steps that were taken and the points brought up by the teachers, instructional leaders and administrators. Such a study could be a valuable addition to the body of literature on tier-based supervisory systems and be a road-map for educational organizations that decide to use a tier-based supervisory system but require some guidance on how to go about adapting and implementing such a system.

6.5 Personal Reflection

As a teacher who has also worked as a teacher trainer over the course of my career, this research has framed the way I think about instructional leadership. I have always been unyielding in my firm adherence to the principle of giving teachers more of a voice regarding the supervisory practices they engage in. That philosophy has not changed. I still believe very strongly that instructional leaders should strive to listen to the teachers and help them become participants in the supervisory process instead of passive consumers of generic and nebulous suggestions. However, I have realized that giving teachers a platform to voice their opinions and preferences is not just about listening to them and giving them what they want. There is more nuance to it than I had first imagined. Firstly, there is a limit to which an instructional leader can listen to, act and agree on teacher suggestions because after a certain point, it could bring up questions regarding standardization and organizational requirements. Secondly, what a teacher says she or he wants might not be the best option based on the data gathered from multiple sources, such as classroom observations, student complaints and feedback from parents.

As a researcher, there has been a major re-ordering of interests and priorities in my mind after having conducted this study, led by the realization that I have experienced significant intellectual development. I had conducted a limited number of small scale studies before starting the current project; however, my experience in research was

very limited and I was apprehensive about the formidable and gargantuan task of writing thousands of words on a project of this magnitude. Furthermore, during the course of the study (especially the data collection and analysis stage), I became acutely cognizant of the pitfalls that can turn a perfectly authentic and rigorous qualitative study into an incoherent collection of anecdotes. However, the old adage that a journey of a thousand miles starts with a single step kept me going. I also decided to review literature concerning methods of ensuring trustworthiness and rigor in my study. By following different strategies outlined for ensuring trustworthiness in my study, I was able to focus single-mindedly on finding answers to the issues and questions that were the basis of my study without being susceptible to the spurious and specious assertions regarding the inherent softness of qualitative research.

6.6 Contribution to the Field

This study contributes to the body of literature on teacher supervision in a context where there has not been a lot of research. As Zepeda and Ponticell point out in their study, “Far more research is needed from *many contexts* (emphasis added) examining teachers' perspectives on supervision” (1998, p.71). It is important to understand research problems from the point of view of the people and the social environment of the setting of the study, because attempting to import or transplant models and suggestions from studies conducted in other contexts can have its limitations. As stated by Bailey (2007):

We must remember that changes in language teacher supervisors' roles do not occur at the same pace or move in the same direction everywhere. The supervisor's role is, in part, ***culturally defined and conceptually located in the educational and political history of a particular region*** (emphasis added). (p. 6)

It is hoped that by outlining teachers' beliefs and expectations in detail, this study will prove to be a useful resource for instructional leaders and administrators in different contexts as it provides detailed description and interpretation of views from teachers who are in different stages in their careers and who come from diverse backgrounds.

The ideas and recommendations of this study can resonate with teachers, instructional leaders and administrators in educational organizations in Saudi Arabia; at the same time, these ideas and recommendations can also be useful in other contexts because it targets a fundamental point that transcends cultural and regional borders: that teachers are individuals with very strong ideas about professional development. Instructional leaders, administrators and policy makers in different contexts around the world can harness the strength of these views by providing individualized support systems that are embedded in supervisory systems instead of being an extra burden for instructional leaders working within a procrustean, 'one-size-fits-all' supervisory system.

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Appendix 1

MSc, PhD, EdD & DEdPsych theses.



Graduate School of Education

Certificate of ethical research approval

MSc, PhD, EdD & DEdPsych theses

To activate this certificate you need to first sign it yourself, and then have it signed by your supervisor and finally by the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee.

For further information on ethical educational research access the guidelines on the BERA web site: <http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications> and view the School's Policy online.

READ THIS FORM CAREFULLY AND THEN COMPLETE IT ON YOUR COMPUTER (the form will expand to contain the text you enter). **DO NOT COMPLETE BY HAND**

Your name: Adil Abdul Rehman

Your student no: 610052560

Return address for this certificate: P.O.Box 80474, Postal Code 21589, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Degree/Programme of Study: EdD TESOL Part-time

Project Supervisor(s): Dr. Susan Jones; Dr. Nigel Skinner

Your email address: aa496@exeter.ac.uk

Tel: 00966 565301128

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given overleaf and that I undertake in my thesis to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research.

I confirm that if my research should change radically, I will complete a further form.

Signed:  **date:** 26 January 2014

Certificate of ethical research approval

TITLE OF YOUR PROJECT:

The teachers' perspective: What they want and get from supervisory practices

1. Brief description of your research project:

The purpose of the research project is to explore teachers' perceptions about how they want to be supervised and what they expect from supervisory practices.

2. Give details of the participants in this research (giving ages of any children and/or young people involved):

Ten teachers from a university in Saudi Arabia will be selected to be interviewed using purposeful random sampling strategy. They will be from different educational and cultural backgrounds. They are the researcher's co-workers.

Give details (with special reference to any children or those with special needs) regarding the ethical issues of:

3. informed consent: Where children in schools are involved this includes both headteachers and parents). Copy(ies) of your consent form(s) you will be using must accompany this document. a blank consent form can be downloaded from the GSE student access on-line documents: **Each consent form MUST be personalised with your contact details.**

The consent of the teachers will be sought in writing. They will be informed about the details and purpose of the study via an information sheet that outlines the details of the project.

4. anonymity and confidentiality

Participants will be ensured about anonymity and confidentiality. Neither their names nor the interview data will be disclosed to anybody. Pseudonyms will be used instead of real names during the recording of the interview. Mention of other types of possibly identifying information, such as the name of the workplace or city will be avoided. The interviewees will be requested beforehand about refraining from making any specific references that could make it possible to identify them or the setting.

5. Give details of the methods to be used for data collection and analysis and how you would ensure they do not cause any harm, detriment or unreasonable stress:

Data will be collected via semi-structured interviews. The interview guide will be shared with the participants beforehand to allow them time for reflection and thought about responses. A grounded theory approach will be adopted for data analysis. The interview data will be coded and themes will be developed from the codes, which will be interpreted.

6. Give details of any other ethical issues which may arise from this project - e.g. secure storage of videos/recorded interviews/photos/completed questionnaires, or

The interviews will be recorded via a Samsung tablet. The audio files will be transferred immediately into the researcher's personal laptop and erased from the tablet computer. The researcher's personal laptop is password protected and no one else has access to it. The interview data (recordings, transcriptions, NVivo files etc.) will be erased after the completion of the dissertation.

7. special arrangements made for participants with special needs etc.

N/A

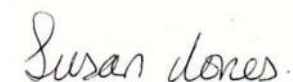
8. Give details of any exceptional factors, which may raise ethical issues (e.g. potential political or ideological conflicts which may pose danger or harm to participants):

N/A

This form should now be printed out, signed by you on the first page and sent to your supervisor to sign. Your supervisor will forward this document to the School's **Research Support Office** for the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee to countersign. A unique approval reference will be added and this certificate will be returned to you to be included at the back of your dissertation/thesis.

***N.B.** You should not start the fieldwork part of the project until you have the signature of your supervisor*

This project has been approved for the period: Feb 2015 **until:** Stated
data collection is complete



By (above mentioned supervisor's signature):**date:**...6th February
2015.....

***N.B. To Supervisor:** Please ensure that ethical issues are addressed annually in your report and if any changes in the research occur a further form is completed.*

GSE unique approval reference:.....

Signed:.....**date:**.....
Chair of the School's Ethics Committee

Appendix 2

Interview Guide

1. Why did you choose to become a teacher?
2. Tell me about your teaching career.
3. How many different types of teacher supervision systems have you been a part of? [portfolios, professional growth oriented, classroom observation, multiple-data sources]
4. What has been your experience with teacher supervision systems?
5. Tell me about a time when you had a positive experience with a teacher supervision system.
6. Tell me about a time when you had a negative experience with a teacher supervision system. What do you suggest could have been done differently in that situation to make it a positive experience?
7. How would you characterize your teaching style?
8. What are the most important attributes of a good teacher?
9. Does the current supervision system help you attain these attributes? If yes, how? If not, how could it be changed to do so?
10. At the end of the supervisory cycle, what are you expected by the university to have achieved?
11. At the end of the supervisory cycle, what do you as a teacher expect to have learned/achieved?
12. Does the supervisory system help you achieve these objectives? If yes, how? If not, how can it be modified to help you do so?
13. If you were given the responsibility, what kind of supervisory system would you design?
14. How do you think this system will help teachers?
15. Is there anything else you would like to add?

Appendix 3



GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Invitation to Participate in Research Study

Title of Research Project:

The teachers' perspective: What they want and get from supervisory practices

You are invited to participate in a research study, which will examine the perspectives of teachers regarding the teacher supervision process. I am a student at the University of the Exeter, England. This research project is for the completion of my dissertation. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you can provide insight on your experiences/perspectives on the teacher supervision process.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete a 50-60 minute interview at a time and place most convenient to you. I will use a digital voice recorder during the interview. There are no risks to the participants. If you choose to participate, your interview will be coded with a number. The interview will be conducted at a time and place of your choosing to minimize any inconveniences. There are some benefits. The information gathered from this study will help determine what teachers want from supervisory practices, and possibly assist members of the administration in creating better supervisory systems. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be discussed only with your permission. Your interview will be coded with a number, and no identifiable information will be associated with your interview. At the conclusion of the study the recorded interviews will be erased. My dissertation supervisors will have access to the interview recordings and the coded number associated with each interview. Your participation is entirely voluntary. If you decide to participate, you are free to discontinue participation at any time.

Your signature below indicates that you have read and understand the information provided above, that you willingly agree to participate and that you may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation at any time.

.....
(Signature of participant)

.....
(Date)

.....
(Printed name of participant)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s)

Name of researcher: Adil Abdul Rehman
Contact phone number of researcher: 00966 565301128

If you have any concerns about the project that you would like to discuss, please contact:

Dr. Susan Jones (research supervisor) Email: susan.m.jones@exeter.ac.uk

OR

Dr. Nigel Skinner (research supervisor) Email: n.c.skinner@exeter.ac.uk

Data Protection Act: The University of Exeter is a data collector and is registered with the Office of the Data Protection Commissioner as required to do under the Data Protection Act 1998. The information you provide will be used for research purposes and will be processed in accordance with the University's registration and current data protection legislation. Data will be confidential to the researcher(s) and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties without further agreement by the participant. Reports based on the data will be in anonymised form.

Appendix 4

List of Initial Codes

The codes are listed in order of frequency of the number of references.

Note: Child nodes are in italics.

No.	Code	Sources	References
1	Flexibility of the system vs rigidity	5	45
2	Personal qualities of instructional leaders	6	32
2.1	<i>Social skills</i>	5	19
2.1.1	<i>Friendly</i>	2	10
2.1.2	<i>Supportive</i>	1	3
2.1.3	<i>Empathetic</i>	2	2
2.1.4	<i>Good listener</i>	1	1
2.1.5	<i>Candid</i>	1	1
2.1.6	<i>Understanding</i>	1	1
2.1.7	<i>Humble</i>	1	1
2.2	<i>Unobtrusive in class</i>	1	4
2.3	<i>Open-minded</i>	3	4
2.4	<i>Objective</i>	2	3
2.5	<i>Unprejudiced</i>	1	1
2.6	<i>Accommodating</i>	1	1
3	Professional qualities of instructional leaders	5	26
3.1	<i>Content knowledge & expertise</i>	4	9
3.2	<i>Experience</i>	5	7
3.3	<i>Professional Background</i>	3	6
3.4	<i>Trained</i>	2	3
3.5	<i>Academic qualifications</i>	1	1
4	Peer to peer interaction	6	24
4.1	<i>Peer observation</i>	4	12
4.2	<i>Being mentored</i>	3	6
4.3	<i>Mentoring other teachers</i>	1	3
4.4	<i>Discussion with peers</i>	1	2
4.5	<i>Peer monitoring</i>	1	1
5	Workshops	7	18
6	Accountability	4	18
7	Feedback from instructional leaders	4	12
7.1	<i>Robust</i>	2	3
7.2	<i>Relevant to & based on observed teaching behavior</i>	2	3
7.3	<i>Concrete</i>	2	2

7.4	<i>Detailed</i>	1	1
7.5	<i>Plausible</i>	1	1
7.6	<i>Honest</i>	1	1
7.7	<i>Specific</i>	1	1
8	Tier based/ developmental system	3	11
9	Trust	3	10
10	Blame-free & non-penalizing support	2	10
11	Orientation for new teachers	2	9
12	Freedom for engaging in different PD activities	3	9
13	Discussions with instructional leaders	2	9
14	Acknowledgement of good teaching practice	4	8
15	Formal observations	3	8
16	Incorporating teacher feedback	1	8
17	Respect	4	7
18	Keeping abreast of latest ELT research	1	7
19	Reading	3	6
20	Discussion groups	5	6
21	Informal observations	2	6
22	Pre-observation meeting	2	5
23	Multiple PD options and opportunities	3	5
24	Videos	2	5
25	Departure from a faultfinding model	2	4
26	Probation period	2	4
27	External trainers	2	4
28	Recording detailed data during classroom observations	1	4
29	Realistic PD expectations from the administration	1	3
30	Collaboration	2	3
31	Encouragement from administration	3	3
32	Not obsessing over minutiae	3	3
33	Using educational terms & avoiding managerial nomenclature	1	3
34	Informal class visits	2	3
35	Transparency	2	3
36	In-house trainers	1	3
37	Familiarity with observers	2	2
38	Observer's flexibility	1	2
39	Webinars	2	2
40	Encouragement from instructional leader	1	2
41	PD courses	2	2

Appendix 5

Teacher 8's coded interview transcript followed by the NVivo coding summary by source.

Transcript

I: This is an interview for a doctoral study and for this interview I'll be talking to a colleague of mine, so good day to you Sir.

R: Good day.

I: Could you please tell me why you chose to become a teacher?

R: It was my dream since I was a kid, and some of my teachers when they were teaching me I saw that they were very effective and they had a very good influence on me, so that's why I decided to become a teacher in the future.

I: Thank you very much. Could you tell me something about your teaching history, your work experience please?

R: Yes, after I finished my university I got a BA from the English department of [REDACTED] University, and directly after I finished it I worked as a private tutor for secondary stage in my country and I found it is a good career because you have different students all the time and you see your effect on the students. After that I attended some courses at the [REDACTED] University in [REDACTED], and after I finished these courses they asked me to join them. I worked at the [REDACTED] University of [REDACTED] for six years. After that I joined '[REDACTED]', which is something like the cultural centre for America and [REDACTED]; I worked there for around two years and after that I came to this place, I joined around five years ago.

I: When you were teaching at the [REDACTED] University in [REDACTED], exactly what were you teaching?

R: I was teaching different levels. At the [REDACTED] University in [REDACTED], they had 12 levels and I was teaching all of them, and the courses were distributed randomly among the teachers according to the courses available, and we were teaching different books,

different series, like 'Interchange' like 'True Colors' 'Expressions 1, 2, 3,' and 'Headway.'

I: Okay, thank you. Now, moving onto supervision, how many different types of teacher supervision systems have you been a part of? Like portfolios, classroom observations etc.?

R: Since I started my teaching career I had the observation system; at the [REDACTED] University in [REDACTED] and at [REDACTED], supervisors come to observe, and they called it the class visit, and some other places it's called observation, it depends on the place; they come to visit the class and see certain aspects. We had a kind of rubric we had to follow and I got used to the system.

I: So, basically, it's always been classroom observation.

R: Yes.

I: In general what has been your experience with classroom observation systems, or supervision systems?

R: I found that my experience and my understanding of the observation system is getting better, because the first time when I was observed in my country it was hell because I was focusing on something and the observer was focusing on something else; so I started to learn what observation meant, what are the points that I should focus on, and after that in the second observation I got full marks, at the [REDACTED] University in [REDACTED]... It was six and I got 5 ½ in the second one because I knew what the observation means and how to teach, how to make a logical lesson plan; but what bothers me is if the observer is a specialist or not, because sometimes when you have an observer who has not specialized in English or teaching in particular, I find it is a problem, because sometimes he is talking about something which is illogical. For example one of the observers told me something about the seating plan of my students, that the chair of one of the students was a little back by around 2 cm or something, and he commented that perhaps the student's understanding was low because of these 2 cm, so I asked if he had any theory that says that. Seriously it did happen, and I was very bothered and annoyed because this is not scientific, that is not something that has theoretical ground. But after

that experience the next observer was someone who specialized in TESOL so he understood what he was doing, I got four out of five and after that I got 4+, so thankfully it's getting better.

I: Could you tell me about a specific example when you had a positive experience with a supervisory system, specifically about what an observer did or say to you?

R: In one of my classes, the level of my students was average, and the observer was an American guy who specialized in TESOL, and when he visited me in my class I didn't feel his existence in the classroom, he was very quiet, he didn't affect my class procedure, he did not interfere at any time, and just when he came to my class he asked me 'Where would you like me to sit?'. He was a very understanding person, and after I finished and I went for the feedback session he asked me about the positive and negative points, I told him about the positive points and the negative ones. When he started giving me the positive points, thankfully they were much more than the negative ones and gave me 4+.

I: So, basically, the gist of it is that positive feedback from the observer gave you more confidence?

R: Sure, yes.

I: Now the flipside: Could you tell me about a specific time when you had a negative experience?

R: Yes, one time the observer was an Englishman, a Briton, and his specialization was not the English language, he was a lawyer, he had a BA in law, but he is working in teaching because he's a native English speaker; in my point of view, I'm a native speaker of Arabic but I cannot teach Arabic language, I mean I cannot teach grammar, vocabulary etc.; So he came to my class, when you have an observation you have to go to your class earlier, so I went early and set up everything. He came to me and before the observation...I was surprised when he said to me my lesson plan is not well organized, and this is before even my class had started; we send a copy to our observer the night before the observation day, and before I had even started my class he confused me. Number one, professionally, he doesn't have the right to discuss the lesson plan with me

before the class, he has to wait, be quiet until I finish and then he can give me the feedback, but he started giving me the feedback before I started my class. So, this put me under pressure that my lesson plan was wrong which means the whole class will be hell. During the class I felt that I was under pressure, that my performance was bad, especially when some people had warned me about this guy before the observation, that he is very tough, he doesn't understand what TESOL or teaching in general means, that this was not his field, and many other things, and he completed the story by discussing the lesson plan with me before I had started my lesson. After I finished he told me that I won't be getting more than 2 (laughs). I told him, "By the way if you're talking about professionalism, what you did with me is not professional at all because you discussed the lesson plan with me before the class". By the way, during that time we had a certain guy who was an observer and he was let's say very strict, so if you get 3 with that guy, you are wonderful, and that guy gave me 4+. During that time we had an old system, every year you had to have an informal observation and then a formal one, so in the informal he gave me 4+, so when I told the other guy, the one who discussed the lesson plan with me, the negative one, I told them that I got 4+ with so-and-so, so if you give me 2 it'll make problems for you, I will make a problem for you because you confused me before I even started my class; so he was little bit afraid of the situation, because if you give me 2 and that other strict guy had given me 4+, so this means there is a problem or there's something wrong with him. So he said he was going to give me 3+ minimum and not to worry. That was the most negative observation I have had in my life, because he doesn't understand anything in TESOL, I was doing many things in class and he didn't understand them, he just said 'the lesson plan is not as CELTA says,' he had done a course in CELTA and he is moving around it, anything outside of CELTA is not acceptable.

I: What do you suggest could have been done differently by the observer in that situation to make it a positive experience; and what were the specific points that made it negative? You said that one of the things was that he gave you the feedback before he even saw the lesson, the other thing you said was that he wasn't qualified to be in this field. My question is what would you suggest to make the situation different?

R: Number one, the observer should be, let's say, at the start of the observation he should be smiling, he should be encouraging the person being observed, saying something like 'don't worry, I know you're a good teacher, it will be all right,' something like that, even if he doesn't know him, something that makes the person being observed stable and makes him sure of what he is saying during the class. Number two, they should be trained before they come to be observers, because they have to have certain standards that all of them follow; I mean, if A observes me and gives me 4, then if B observes me and gives me 4 or maximum 4+, not 2, not from 4 to 2; so they have to have certain standards that all of them follow. Number three, they should be qualified, even before they have this training, they should understand what the student means, what class management means, when you do something they must know what's behind that action, something like that. If this happens then I think it will be totally different.

I: So, to recap, should be qualified, should be trained, and he should have human skills to put the teacher at ease. Those are the main points, right?

R: Yes.

I: Okay, now, tell me something about your teaching style. How would you characterize your teaching style; what kind of a teacher are you?

R: I like communicative classes. I like my students to talk, to say something in class and not be just receivers of English, because English is not a normal subject, or any language, when you teach any language, it's not science or math where you give information and the copy the information from the board, you need the students to talk.

I: All right. You just described your teaching style. Now I want words. What are the most important attributes of a good teacher?

R: Number one, he should be patient; number two he should be helpful, he should be cooperative, he should be knowledgeable because sometimes students ask for general information but related to the language, so the teacher should be knowledgeable, well-educated and specialized in the field he is teaching.

I: I could see that your focus is more on the human side of the teacher, you want him to be patient and to bond with the students and all that.

R: Yes, it's very important.

I: Now, the current supervision system here, does this help you or other teachers to develop these attributes or that teaching style that you said is yours?

R: The place here is okay, the only point is you have a lot of material to cover, this does not give you much time to develop a rapport with the students to be patient, no time for the students to ask you and then for you to discuss.

I: By the end of the supervisory cycle, what does the University expect from you?

R: They ask us to attend conferences and workshops. Even if you would like to travel outside the place, outside the whole country to attend conferences in the UAE or the US, they accept that, because they understand and realize the importance of improving your skills and teaching.

I: Okay, that's the university's expectation; now you yourself as a teacher, do you expect to have achieved something by the end of the supervisory cycle for yourself? Personal aims or something like that.

R: Sometimes when I'm not free or I don't have any social commitments and they have an offer for a workshop or conference or something, I try to make a (incomprehensible), but when I go and attend I see a difference, I see a difference in my teaching, because you need to reactivate ideas in your mind most of the time. All the time you need to get new ideas, for example you may be good at teaching writing, speaking, but you are weak in listening; maybe in one of the workshops you get an idea on how to teach listening, so it's good for teachers.

I: So, your personal expectation is always to learn new things.

R: Yes.

I: Okay. Again, you have partially answered the next question but I'll ask it anyway. Let me see if we have covered all the grounds. These expectations from the University and your personal expectations, are these supported by the current supervisory system? Does it help you achieve these goals?

R: Yes, somehow yes, the workshops are available here... Sometimes the Professional Development Unit here, they tell us about some websites that give free webinars most of

the time; even if it's not free they send emails for attending some conferences and workshops in many different universities in this country, I mean they let you know what happens around you in this field.

I: If you were given the responsibility to develop a supervisory system, what kind of supervisory system would you design? What would be the important features of that program?

R: Number one, I would make the observation just one time when the teacher joins the place, I would make it one time, and it would be a demo class not a real class, because when you come to the teacher inside the classes the students understand everything, they understand that this is an observer and they come to see if you're a good teacher or not; I think it is a negative image for the place, not just for the teacher, but the place. Another thing, I would just choose the qualified people.

I: You brought up a good point, so before we veer off the topic I want one little thing clarified here. You said that you would ask the teacher to be observed when he joins, right?

R: Yes, just one time.

I: What would be the purpose of that? Would it be diagnostic? To determine what kind of teacher he is?

R: Yes, in any place you work you have a probation period, so in this probation period you come to an end, either both of you agree for the place or you disagree, because sometimes when you interview me at the beginning I will say that everything is perfect with me, but when it comes to the practical side you find that perhaps I'm not a qualified teacher; so, just to make, let's say, a demo class, or even a real class for just one time, and if you accept me as a teacher, it's over; so for example if we have the full mark for the observation which is five, and this year I got 4, and next year I got 3, and after that I got five then what's the difference, I'm still a teacher, there is no difference, but if you give me the confidence, even if you come to my class for 10 minutes or 15 minutes, no arrangements for the visit, no problem for me because for sure I'm teaching. If you're an accountant or you're working at another job it's okay, you can do something else, but

with teaching, if you don't teach then the students will complain; so having this all the time every year, once a year is okay; it puts the teacher under pressure, and all the people know that everything done in the observation is fake, I mean using pictures and group work and peer work and individual work in (50) minutes, we do not do this all the time. One of the observers was teaching in the class next to mine, when he came to observe me one time; after the observation I got good marks, and after a while when he was teaching in his class which was next to mine, I entered his class and I found that he was sitting and hadn't written anything on the board and the students were talking, and he is an observer, so I asked is this what we are expected to do during the class, and he said that not everything could be done all the time; so I don't like this. If you would like to come to my class at any time for 10 or 15 or 30 minutes, it's okay, see how my class is interacting with me, it's okay with me, but just to say that you'll come on such and such day and if I did not do well my contract would not be renewed or something like that... It will put me under a lot of pressure, and I don't like that. These are the main points, if I'm in the position of improving the observation system, I would do that.

I: Let me see if I understand this, let's recap, number one, formal observation only once when the teacher joins to determine whether he is good enough to teach here or not; number two, after that when the teacher is chosen, there shouldn't be too many formal observations, however informal visits, no problem. Do I understand it correctly? Is there anything else or these are the only two points?

R: Yes, I can add another point but this is done in this place, which is making workshops available, real workshops, because sometimes you have workshops which add nothing to you; for example, I attended one of the workshops here which was being conducted by a British guy who is talking about using colors in the class, and I think that if I brought my nephew or niece to talk about this issue it would be better, because they add nothing to us. I even asked him if it is okay to use red color when you correct papers and he said it was optional. During the whole session everything was optional, so what did you bring to us? so I want to make workshops available, but real workshops.

I: Now, briefly, we are almost at the end... The system that you're talking about, if you implement that at a place, how exactly do you think it's going to help the teachers, or how is it good for the teachers?

R: You mean the new system of observation?

I: Whatever that you are suggesting, like one formal at the beginning, then after that informal, having a lot of workshops etc.

R: Number one, if you make just one observation for the teacher when he joins the teacher will understand that you respect him and you trust him and you support him, because if you are testing me all the time then you doubt my performance, you are suspicious about me, this is one thing, so I will put trust on my teachers...

I: You think the system does develop trust between the teachers and the administration?

R: Yes, for sure, this is number one; number two, in my country I was working at a place called [REDACTED], this is one of the highest technological places in my country, and the CEO of this place was an important person who was highly educated, overqualified, he was wonderful, he's a public figure in my country, and once we had a visit from the president and the CEO came to us and he was just supporting us, all of us were working in one team, he was talking to us, and we were the lowest ranked in the company, and he is the highest ranked, but we were going to meet the president ourselves and not him. He came to us and told us that we are one team and if you succeed it means we succeeded, so we need to show a good image for the place, and that he depended on us, and if anything bothered us then we should tell him, and he was very friendly, he put his hand on our shoulders. You don't know what kind of positive encouragement we had during that day, and we had a wonderful visit with the president after this meeting with the CEO. So, the relation between the administration and the teachers, or any kind of administration and employees, should be positive, should be that I trust you, I employed you so this means you are qualified, you can do your job well, I trust you. When you give me this kind of trust you will push me to improve my performance, to take care of my students, deal with my students as if I was dealing with my own kids, because when I teach the students in my class I'm thinking about my children, if I don't do my job well

the same will happen to my own children, they have teachers and they will not do their job because I betrayed my students and my administration; so this is a key trend, or feature, I cannot say must be used in this place but should be used because I see the negative attitudes of my colleagues here, because of the repetitive observations, class visits, reports, all this puts you under pressure, you feel that all the time you have to be busy for nothing.

I: Thank you very much. This is the end of the interview. Would you like to add anything else?

R: No, I'm done.

I: All right, we are done, then. Thank you very much for your time Sir.

R: Thank you.

Coding Summary By Source

Dissertation

09/09/2016 03:39

Classification	Aggregate	Coverage	Number Of Coding References	Reference Number	Coded By Initials	Modified On
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Document

Internals\\Teacher 3

Node

Nodes\\The professional aspect\\Developing ELT knowledge individually\\Webinars

No	1					
				1	A	28/03/2015 11:10

they tell us about some websites that give free webinars

Nodes\\The professional aspect\\Observation Cycle\\Formal observations

No	1					
				1	A	28/03/2015 11:15

R: So for example if we have the full mark for the observation which is five, and this year I got 4, and next year I got 3, and after that I got five then what's the difference, I'm still a teacher, there is no difference, but if you give me the confidence, even if you come to my class for 10 minutes or 15 minutes, no arrangements for the visit, no problem for me because for sure I'm teaching. If you're an accountant or you're working at another job it's okay, you can do something else, but with teaching, if you don't teach then the students will complain; so having this all the time every year, once a year is okay; it puts the teacher under pressure, and all the people know that everything done in the observation is fake, I mean using pictures and group work and peer work and individual work in (50) minutes, we do not do this all the time. One of the observers was teaching in the class next to mine, when he came to observe me one time; after the observation I got good marks, and after a while when he was teaching in his class which was next to mine, I entered his class and I found that he was sitting and hadn't written anything on the board and the students were talking, and he is an observer, so I asked is this what we are expected to do during the class, and he said that not everything could be done all the time; so I don't like this. If you would like to come to my class at any time for 10 or 15 or 30 minutes, it's okay, see how my class is interacting with me, it's okay with me, but just to say that you'll come on such and such day and if I did not do well my contract would not be renewed or something like that, put me under a lot of pressure, and I don't like that. These are the main points, if I'm in the position of improving the observation system, I would do that.

I: Let me see if I understand this, let's recap, number one, formal observation only once when the teacher joins to determine whether he is good enough to teach here or not; number two, after that when the teacher is chosen, there shouldn't be too many formal observations, however informal visits, no problem. Do I understand it correctly? Is there anything else or these are the only two points?

R: Yes

Nodes\\The professional aspect\\Observation Cycle\\Informal class visits

No	2					
			1	A	28/03/2015 11:14	
come to my class for 10 minutes or 15 minutes, no arrangements for the visit, no problem for me because for sure I'm teaching						
			2	A	28/03/2015 11:14	
If you would like to come to my class at any time for 10 or 15 or 30 minutes, it's okay, see how my class is interacting with me, it's okay with me						

09/09/2016 03:39

Classification	Aggregate	Coverage	Number Of Coding References	Reference Number	Coded By Initials	Modified On
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Nodes\\The professional aspect\\Probation period

Yes	1					
			1	A	28/03/2015 11:12	
In any place you work you have a probation period, so in this probation period you come to an end, either both of you agree for the place or you disagree, because sometimes when you interview me at the beginning I will say that everything is perfect with me, but when it comes to the practical side you find that perhaps I'm not a qualified teacher; so, just to make, let's say, a demo class, or even real class for just one time, and if you accept me as a teacher, it's over.						

Nodes\\The professional aspect\\Professional qualities of instructional leaders\\Academic qualifications

No	1					
			1	A	28/03/2015 11:06	
should be qualified, even before they have this training						

Nodes\\The professional aspect\\Professional qualities of instructional leaders\\Content knowledge & expertise

No	6		
	1	A	26/03/2015 13:47
<p>One time the observer was an Englishman, a Briton, and his specialization was not the English language, he was a lawyer, he had a BA in law, but he is working in teaching because he's a native English speaker; in my point of view, I'm a native speaker of Arabic but I cannot teach Arabic language, I mean I cannot teach grammar, vocabulary etc.; So he came to my class, when you have an observation you have to go to your class earlier, so I went early and set up everything, so he came to me and before the observation I discovered that he says, or I was surprised when he said to me my lesson plan is not well organized, and this is before even my class had started; we send a copy to our observer the night before the observation day, and before I had even started my class he confused me. Number one, professionally, he doesn't have the right to discuss the lesson plan with me before the class, he has to wait, be quiet until I finish and then he can give me the feedback, but he started giving me the feedback before I started my class. So, this put me under pressure that my lesson plan was wrong which means the whole class will be a hell. During the class I felt that I was under pressure, that my performance was bad, especially when some people had warned me about this guy before the observation, that he is very tough, he doesn't understand what TESOL or teaching in general means.</p>			
	2	A	26/03/2015 13:48
<p>That was the most negative observation I have had in my life, because he doesn't understand anything in TESOL.</p>			
	3	A	26/03/2015 13:48
<p>I was doing many things in class and he didn't understand them, he just said 'the lesson plan is not as CELTA says,' he had done a course in CELTA and he is moving around it, anything outside of CELTA is not acceptable.</p>			
	4	A	28/03/2015 11:07
<p>they should understand what the student means</p>			
	5	A	28/03/2015 11:07
<p>what class management means</p>			
	6	A	28/03/2015 11:07
<p>when you do something they must know what's behind that action</p>			

Classification	Aggregate	Coverage	Number Of Coding References	Reference Number	Coded By Initials	Modified On
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Nodes\\The professional aspect\\Professional qualities of instructional leaders\\Professional Background

No	4			1	A	26/03/2015 13:34
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what bothers me is if the observer is a specialist or not

				2	A	26/03/2015 13:34
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when you have an observer who has not specialized in English or teaching in particular, I find it is a problem

				3	A	26/03/2015 13:35
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the next observer was someone who specialized in TESOL so he understood what he was doing

				4	A	26/03/2015 13:48
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this was not his field

Nodes\\The professional aspect\\Professional qualities of instructional leaders\\Training

No	1			1	A	28/03/2015 11:06
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They should be trained before they come to be observers, because they have to have certain standards that all of them follow; I mean, if A observes me and gives me 4, then if B observes me and gives me 4 or maximum 4+ not 2, not from 4 to 2; so they have to have certain standards that all of them follow.

Nodes\\The professional aspect\\Training\\Workshops

No	5			1	A	28/03/2015 11:09
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Sometimes when I'm not free or I don't have any social commitments and they have an offer for a workshop or conference or something, I try to make a (incomprehensible), but when I go and attend I see a difference, I see a difference in my teaching, because you need to reactivate ideas in your mind most of the time, all the time you need to get new ideas.

				2	A	28/03/2015 11:10
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You may be good at teaching writing, speaking, but you are a weak in listening, maybe in one of the workshops you get an idea on how to teach listening, so it's good for teachers.

3 A 28/03/2015 11:10

yes, the workshops are available here

4 A 28/03/2015 11:15

I can add another point but this is done in this place, which is making workshops available.

09/09/2016 03:39

Classification	Aggregate	Coverage	Number Of Coding References	Reference Number	Coded By Initials	Modified On
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5 A 28/03/2015 11:15

Sometimes you have workshops which add nothing to you; for example, I attended one of the workshops here which was being conducted by a British guy who is talking about using colors in the class, and I think that if I brought my nephew or niece to talk about this issue it would be better, because they add nothing to us, I even asked him if it is okay to use red color when you correct papers and he said it was optional, during the whole session everything was optional, so what did you bring to us; so I want to make workshops available, but real workshops.

Nodes\\The social aspect\\Collegiality\\Trust

No 3

1 A 28/03/2015 11:16

R: Number one, if you make just one observation for the teacher when he joins the teacher will understand that you respect him and you trust him and you support him, because if you are testing me all the time then you doubt my performance, you are suspicious about me, this is one thing, so I will put trust on my teachers...

I: You think the system does develop trust between the teachers and the administration?

R: Yes, for sure, this is number one.

2 A 28/03/2015 11:30

in my country I was working at a place called [REDACTED], this is one of the highest technological places in my country, and the CEO of this place was an important person who was highly educated, overqualified, he was wonderful, he's a public figure in my country, and once we had a visit from the president and the CEO came to us and he was just supporting us, all of us were working in one team, he was talking to us, and we were the lowest ranked in the company, and he is the highest ranked, but we were going to meet the president ourselves and not him, he came to us and told us that we are one team and if you succeed it means we succeeded, so we need to show a good image for the place, and that he depended on us, and if anything bothered us then we should tell him, and he was very friendly, he put his hand on our shoulders; you don't know what kind of positive encouragement we had during that day, and we had a wonderful visit with the president after this meeting with the CEO. So, the relation between the administration and the teachers, or any kind of administration and employees, should be positive, should be that I trust you, I employed you so this means you are qualified, you can do your job well, I trust you.

3 A 28/03/2015 11:30

When you give me this kind of trust you will push me to improve my performance, to take care of my students, deal with my students as if I was dealing with my own kids, because when I teach the students in my class I'm thinking about my children, if I don't do my job well the same will happen to my own children, they have teachers and they will not do their job because I betrayed my students and my administration; so this is a key trend, or feature, I cannot say must be used in this place but should be used because I see the negative attitudes of my colleagues here, because of the repetitive observations, class visits, reports, all this puts you under pressure, you feel that all the time you have to be busy for nothing.

Nodes\\The social aspect\\Encouragement\\Encouragement from instructional leader

No 2

1 A 26/03/2015 13:45

R: In one of my classes, the level of my students was average, and the observer was an American guy who specialized in TESOL, and when he visited me in my class at him feel his existence in the classroom, he was very quiet, he didn't affect my class procedure, he did not interfere at any time, and just when he came to my class he asked me 'where would you like me to sit,' he was a very understanding person, and after I finished and I went for the feedback session he asked me about the positive and negative points, I told him about the positive points and by the negative ones, I really didn't want to tell the negative points because sometimes I see some negative points that he did not see and if I point it out he might see it to, so I don't tell him about any negative points, and when he started giving me the positive points thankfully they were much more than the negative ones and gave me 4+.

I: So, basically, the gist of it is that positive feedback from the observer gave you more confidence?

R: Sure, yes.

2 A 26/03/2015 13:49

Number one, the observer should be, let's say, at the start of the observation he should be smiling, he should be encouraging the person being observed, saying something like 'don't worry, I know you're a good teacher, it will be all right,' something like that, even if he doesn't know him, something that makes the person being observed stable and makes him sure of what he is saying during the class.

Nodes\\The social aspect\\Holistic view of pedagogy\\Not obsessing over minutiae

No 1

1 A 26/03/2015 13:35

One of the observers told me something about the seating plan of my students, that the chair of one of the students was a little back by around 2 cm or something, and he commented that perhaps the students understanding was low because of these 2 cm, so I asked if he had any theory that says that. Seriously it did happen, and I was very bothered and annoyed because this is not scientific, that is not something that has theoretical ground.

09/09/2016 03:39

Classification	Aggregate	Coverage	Number Of Coding References	Reference Number	Coded By Initials	Modified On
Nodes\\The social aspect\\Personal qualities of instructional leaders\\Social skills\\Empathetic						
	Yes		1			
				1	A	26/03/2015 13:44
he was a very understanding person						
Nodes\\The social aspect\\Personal qualities of instructional leaders\\Unobtrusive in class						
	No		4			
				1	A	26/03/2015 13:39
when he visited me in my class I didn't feel his existence in the classroom						
				2	A	26/03/2015 13:39
he was very quiet						
				3	A	26/03/2015 13:39
he didn't affect my class procedure						
				4	A	26/03/2015 13:39
he did not interfere at any time						

Appendix 6

ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE Professional Development Unit

FORMAL OBSERVATION EVALUATION REPORT

NAME OF INSTRUCTOR:				INSTRUCTOR ID:			
NAME OF OBSERVER:							
OBSERVATION SCHEDULE							
SECTION:		BUILDING:		ROOM:		DATE:	
REPEATERS?	YES:		NO:		LESSON FOCUS		
LESSON PLAN:	YES:	✓	NO:		No. of Students:		LESSON STARTED AT:

EVALUATION CRITERIA		Outstanding	Above Average	Satisfactory	Needs Development	Unsatisfactory
A	PLANNING AND PREPARATION					
1	Develops a focused and logically staged lesson with clearly stated and appropriate lesson objectives					
B	CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT					
2	Builds rapport with learners to create a cordial and supportive learning environment					
3	Demonstrates effective classroom management skills to enhance and support learning					
C	LESSON DELIVERY					
4	Uses engaging warm up activities to personalize the learning context and stimulate learners' interest					
5	Gives clear and concise instructions for activities					
6	Monitors learners closely to ensure they are focused during activities					
7	Uses effective questioning techniques to elicit learners' responses and to check their understanding					
8	Provides effective, focused, and communicative pair and/or group work activities to increase student talking time					
9	Demonstrates command of the subject matter and the lesson content					
10	Delivers a well timed and well paced lesson with minimal digression to achieve the stated lesson objectives					
11	Evaluates learners' work with clear and constructive feedback & assessment activities					
12	Makes effective use of white board/visual presentation					
D	LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY					
13	Demonstrates fluency and accuracy in pronunciation					
14	Uses appropriate vocabulary and grammatical structures in both oral and written communication					

Overall Rating	1	2	3	3+	4	4+	5
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(3+ indicates "high satisfactory" and 4+ indicates "excellent")

FORMAL OBSERVATION EVALUATION REPORT

POSITIVE ASPECTS OF LESSON

-
-
-

AREAS TO WORK ON or CONSIDER FURTHER

-
-
-

COMPARISON WITH LAST OBSERVATION

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATION

INSTRUCTOR'S COMMENTS

Instructor's Signature:

Date:

Evaluator's Signature:

Appendix 7

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION EVALUATION CRITERIA

A Summary of Evaluation Ratings and Guidelines

5. OUTSTANDING	4. ABOVE AVERAGE	3. SATISFACTORY	2. NEEDS DEVELOPMENT	1. UNSATISFACTORY
<p>Summary : A model teacher, whose teaching embodies the best ELT practices, exceeds expectations in almost all criteria and meets global EFL benchmarks in terms of planning, instructional quality and communication skills. Could be filmed and observed by other teachers for the purpose of training and development.</p> <p>Guidelines:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Receives 'Outstanding' rating in approximately 10 out of 14 evaluation categories. Should not receive 'Needs Development' or 'Unsatisfactory' ratings in any category Has 'Outstanding' rating in most of the following key areas: B2, B3, C6, C7, C8, C9, C10, C12, D13, D14 	<p>Summary : A good teacher who meets all expectations & exceeds some. Has the potential to develop into an outstanding teacher with training and constructive feedback. Possesses exceptional communication skills but needs to fine-tune lesson delivery skills to meet the 'best practices' standards.</p> <p>Guidelines:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Receives 'Above Average' or 'Outstanding' rating in approximately 10 out of 14 evaluation categories. Should not receive 'Needs Development' or 'Unsatisfactory' ratings in any category. Has 'Above Average' or higher ratings in most of the following key areas: B2, B3, C6, C7, C8, C9, C10, C12, D13, D14 	<p>Summary: An effective teacher who meets most but not all expectations. Delivers satisfactory performance in most categories. May receive 'Needs Development' rating in some areas but has the ability to meet all or exceed some expectations with further training, experience and feedback.</p> <p>Guidelines:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Receives 'satisfactory' or higher ratings in approximately 10 out of 14 evaluation categories. Should not receive 'Unsatisfactory' rating in any category. Should receive 'Satisfactory' or higher ratings in most of the following key areas: B2, B3, C6, C7, C8, C9, C10, C12, D13, D14 	<p>Summary: A teacher with weaknesses who meets some but not most expectations. Has developmental needs in some core areas and has to work hard to meet the requirements of the institute in terms of planning, classroom management, lesson delivery skills and language proficiency.</p> <p>Guidelines:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Receives 'Needs Development' rating in D15 or D16 May receive 'Unsatisfactory' rating in one or more categories. Receives 'Needs Development' rating in approximately 4 out of 16 categories or any 3 of the following key areas: B2, B3, C6, C7, C8, C9, C10, C12, D13, D14 	<p>Summary: Meets few expectations and is unlikely to satisfy the requirements of the Institute. Demonstrates fundamental weaknesses in terms of language skills. Teaching skills are weak and ineffective and are unlikely to improve with training or coaching.</p> <p>Guidelines:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Receives 'Unsatisfactory' rating in D15 or D16. Receives 'Unsatisfactory' rating in approximately 4 categories or any 3 of the following key areas: B2, B3, C6, C7, C8, C9, C10, C12, D13, D14
	<p>4+ Excellent</p> <p>Guidelines: Meets all criteria for a rating of 4 and:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Has at least 7 categories rated "Outstanding". Has not received "Needs Development" or "Unsatisfactory" ratings in any category. 	<p>3+ High Satisfactory</p> <p>Guidelines: Meets all criteria for a rating of 3 and:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Has at least 7 categories rated "Above Average" or "Outstanding". Has not received "Needs Development" or "Unsatisfactory" ratings in any category. 		

Instructor's Overall Rating	1	2	3	3+	4	4+	5
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Appendix 8

EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR “DEVELOPMENT” PART OF ANNUAL EVALUATIONS

	5. OUTSTANDING	4. ABOVE AVERAGE	3. SATISFACTORY	2. NEEDS DEVELOPMENT	1. UNSATISFACTORY
Participation in ELI-Sponsored PD Events and Discussion Groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combined Week of Workshops, Discussion Group, and Oxford training attendance is close to 90% of the required amount¹. and Faculty member presents during the Week of Workshops or leads 3 or more discussion groups sessions or serves as a mentor for 3 or more modules. (if this bullet is met but attendance requirement is not met, a “4” will be given). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combined Week of Workshops, Discussion Group, and Oxford training attendance is close to 90% of the required amount. and Faculty member leads or significantly helps to organize one or two discussion group sessions or serves as a mentor for at least 2 modules. (if this bullet is met but attendance requirement is not met, a “3” will be given). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combined Week of Workshops, Discussion Group, and Oxford training attendance is at least 80% of the required amount. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combined Week of Workshops, Discussion Group, and Oxford training attendance is at least 50% of the required amount. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Attends less than 50% of the required amount of Week of Workshops presentations, Discussion Groups, and Oxford training events.
Professional Development Report	<p>Submits a quite detailed and thoughtful report showing:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Significant effort made to improve in the 2 areas mentioned on the annual PD form Clear evidence that improvement was made Details about multiple things the teacher learned from internal and external professional development Significant effort to make changes in teaching based on what was learned from internal and external professional development 	<p>Submits a detailed report showing:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clear and specific effort made to improve in the 2 areas mentioned on the annual PD form Reasonable evidence that improvement was made Clear and specific things the teacher learned from internal and external professional development A clear attempt to implement things learned from internal and external professional development into the teacher's teaching. 	<p>Submits a report showing:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effort made to improve in the 2 areas mentioned on the annual PD form Some evidence that improvement was made Some things the teacher learned from internal and external professional development Some attempt to implement things learned from internal and external professional development into the teacher's teaching. 	<p>Submits a fairly brief report showing:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Minor effort made to improve in the 2 areas mentioned on the annual PD form Sketchy or vague evidence that improvement was made A few things the teacher learned from internal and external professional development Minor effort to implement things learned from internal and external professional development into the teacher's teaching. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fails to submit a report or report shows minimal effort and little evidence.

¹ **Attendance "Required Amount":** Before each "Week of Workshops", the PDU will announce what the "required" number of sessions are. For Discussion Groups, the "required" attendance amount is 2 groups per module. For Oxford Training, the "required" amount is the amount communicated by the PDU prior to the training event.

External Professional Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does at least one of the following things within the evaluation period¹: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Presents at an external ESL conference such as KSAALT, TESOL Arabia, Nile TESOL, Qatar TESOL, etc. Publishes multiple articles in non peer-reviewed journals or magazines. Publishes one article in a peer-reviewed journal. Completes a CELTA, Trinity Certificate, or similar. Shows evidence of a DELTA module or Trinity Diploma module having been completed. Shows evidence/transcript of M.A. or Ph.D. coursework in TEFL or a closely related field (not research only) in progress. Shows diploma for MA or PhD in TEFL or a closely related field earned within the evaluation period. <p><i>Note: anything done over the summer counts for the following academic year.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does at least one of the following things within the evaluation period: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Attends the full length of an external ESL conference such as KSAALT and submits a report on major things learned at the conference. Completes a short external professional development course such as TKT from the British Council, an on-campus British Council course, or an online course such as those from Cambridge English Teachers. Faculty member should report major things learned. Over the academic year, watches or reads any combination of 20 webinars or journal articles² OR reads two entire books and submits a clear and detailed report summarizing each book and what the teacher learned from it. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Within the evaluation period, watches or reads any combination of 10 webinars or journal articles OR reads an entire book and submits a clear and detailed report summarizing the book and what the teacher learned from it. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Within the evaluation period, watches or reads any combination of 5 webinars or journal articles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does not do any external professional development.
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Calculation of Overall Score:

The overall score is calculated by adding the 3 sub-scores together and dividing by 3. Results above 0.5 will be rounded up while results below 0.5 will be rounded down. For example, 4.67 would be rounded to "5" while results from 3.67 to 4.33 would all be rounded to "4" overall.

¹ The "evaluation period" is Module 4 of one academic year until the end of Module 3 of the following year (for example: Module 4, 2014 through the end of Module 3, 2015)

² A "journal article" should be from a reputed journal in the field. **Articles less than 10 pages in length only count as partial journal articles.** English Teaching Professional and International House Journal often have short articles, meaning that more articles would have to be read. For example, a 3 page article only = 1/3 of a "journal article".

Appendix 9

Professional Development Report Mod 4, 2014 – Mod 3, 2015

If you have been with the ELI for less than a year, please indicate

Date first reported to work: _____; Module you were first assigned a class: _____
_____. New teachers don't need to complete the "Annual Professional Development Goals" section.

Directions for Everyone: Please **type** your answers (single spaced) and submit a **printed copy** to your coordinator by **Thursday, Feb 26**. If you have 2 coordinators, submit your report to your morning coordinator. Feel free to adjust the spacing as necessary. The completed report should be 4-5 pages in length.

Annual Professional Development Goals for this Period:

1. What were the 2 Annual Professional Development Goals which you submitted for this period?
 - 1.
 - 2.

2. What have you **done** to develop in these areas? Be as detailed and specific as possible.
Goal 1:

Goal 2:

3. What specific **evidence** do you have that you have **improved** in these areas?
Goal 1:

Goal 2:

General Professional Development:

1. List any external (non-████) Professional Development events you've physically attended from Module 4, 2014 until the end of Module 3, 2015.

Date:	Title:	Speaker:	Location:	Length of Event in Hours:

2. What are some of the **specific things** you have **learned** from any of the events listed in #1?

3. What are some of the **specific things** you have **learned** from ELI-sponsored workshops and events?

Event	Things Learned (mention specific workshops or Discussion Groups)
May 2014 Week of Workshops	
Jan 2015 Week of Workshops	
Discussion Groups or OUP training	

4. List any webinars and/or sessions from online conferences you have attended from Module 4, 2014 until the end of Module 3, 2015.

Date:	Title of Webinar or Specific Conference Session:	Speaker:	Sponsoring Organization:	Length of Webinar/ Session in Hours

5. What are some of the **specific things** that you have **learned** from these webinars/conference sessions?

6. List any journal articles or book **chapters** you have read from Module 4, 2014 until the end of Module 3, 2015.

Name of Article/Name of Chapter (if from a book)	Author:	Name of Journal/Book	Date of Publication	Total Pages of Article/Chapter

7. What are some of the **specific things** that you have **learned** from the journal articles or book **chapters** that you listed?

8. List any **whole books** you have read from Module 4, 2014 until the end of Module 3, 2015.

Name of Book:	Author:	Date of Publication:	Total Pages:

9. Please write **two paragraphs** about **each** book. The first paragraph should give an overall summary of the book. The second paragraph should talk about what you **learned** from the book and **how it has affected** your teaching.

10. How has your teaching **changed** based on the external events you have attended, the internal events you have attended, and any books, journal articles, webinars, or online conference sessions you have attended? Please give 1-2 specific examples for each change in teaching practice that you mention.

Change 1: _____
Examples

Change 2: _____

Examples

Change 3: _____

Examples

Other Things:

1. If you have done any of the following things between Module 4, 2014 and the end of Module 3, 2015, please submit evidence along with this form as noted below:
 - a. **Attended a full-length external ESL Conference such as KSAALT or TESOL Arabia**—*submit the conference report attached to this email.*
 - b. **Completed a short external professional development course such as the TKT**—*submit the certificate*
 - c. **Presented at an external ESL Conference such as KSAALT, TESOL Arabia, etc.**—*submit acceptance letter and/or photocopy of the conference program showing your presentation.*
 - d. **Published one or more articles**—*submit a copy of each article published **with clear date of publication.***
 - e. **Completed a CELTA, DELTA, Trinity Certificate, or Trinity Diploma**—*submit a copy of the certificate or diploma*
 - f. **If in the time period mentioned you have done MA or Ph.D. coursework (not research only) in TEFL or a closely related field**--*submit a copy of the grade report (does **not** have to be an official, sealed transcript)*
 - g. **If in the time period mentioned you have completed a MA or Ph.D. in TEFL or a closely related field**--*submit a copy of the degree.*